

**THE INFLUENCE OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE OF MANAGERS
ON JOB INSECURITY AND COPING BEHAVIOUR**

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

This mini-dissertation focuses on emotional intelligence, job insecurity and negative coping behaviour of managers.

In this chapter the problem statement, research objectives and research method is discussed, followed by the proposed division of chapters.

1.1 PROBLEM STATEMENT

1.1.1 Overview of the problem

In pursuit of technological advancement and globalisation, the rapid rate of change is influencing individuals' life at work, at home and in society as a whole. The nature of work in internationally competitive organisations is driven by fast-moving information, continuous improvement and pressure to perform (Castells, 2000). Organisations are trying to save costs by downsizing and restructuring which means that employees have to do more work in the same amount of time and lurk in the shadow of uncertainty regarding job insecurity (Duxbury & Higgins, 2003). This can lead to an increased perception of job insecurity resulting in lowered affective commitment and increased job-related tension resulting in overall negative coping behaviour. Coping mechanisms in the face of job insecurity are becoming an important and challenging issue to many individuals (Duxbury, 2004).

Stoner, Robins and Russell-Chapin (2005) suggest that the demands of work in the face of job insecurity and consequent lack of commitment are having a negative effect on both individuals and organisations. The negative physiological responses are insomnia; overeating and poor nutrition; depression; physical health complaints and hypertension; which translate into absenteeism, high turnover and low performance (Stoner, Robins, & Russell-Chapin, 2005).

The two-stage theoretical model by Jordan, Ashkanasy, and Hartel (2002) confirms a link between job insecurity and workplace behaviour, and the relationship between the constructs as moderated by the emotional intelligence (EI) of managers. Managers can bring about improvement in emotional intelligence by knowing that changes bring about a high level of uncertainty and they should provide clear feedback to employees regarding expectations and the value of employees' opinions to the success of the team. Recognition by managers motivates employees to do more (Dekker & Schaufeli, 1995).

Managers must be able to recognise the need for change, remove barriers, challenge the status quo, and enlist others in pursuit of new initiatives. Evidence suggests that emotionally intelligent leadership is the key to creating a working climate that nurtures employees and encourages them to give their best (Cherniss & Goleman, 2003). According to Luthans and Church (2002), there is enough supporting evidence that emotional intelligence can be measured, developed and managed for performance improvement in the workplace. When emotional bonds are created people will follow the leader in good times and in bad (Cherniss & Goleman, 2003). By using the esteem of their role to model emotional intelligence, managers create positive ambience through gestures and actions. The manager is responsible for creating an emotionally intelligent organisation by instilling in employees that their contribution is meaningful, even in the face of job insecurity; thus fostering a sense of commitment (Cherniss & Goleman, 2003).

The link between emotional intelligence and leadership has been studied in several contexts. Sala (2001) suggests that emotional intelligence is strongly learned and continues to develop as we go through life and learn from our experiences (Sala & Hay/McBer, 2001). In a study on individuals' age group in the hope of evaluating this concept, Sala (2001) deduced that experience increased with age and as a result one becomes more emotionally intelligent, which in turn leads to better leadership (Sala & Hay/McBer, 2001). In studying managers of a global food and beverage company, McClland (1993) found a relationship between emotional intelligence strengths in managers and business results. Managers with a critical mass of strengths in emotional intelligence competencies outperformed yearly revenue targets by a margin of 15 to 20 percent. (Goleman,1998). This effect has also emerged in a study of CEOs in

American insurance companies. Companies where CEOs exhibited more emotional intelligence competencies showed considerable increase in profit and growth (Williams & Livingston, 1984).

1.1.2 Literature review

Emotional intelligence is the ability to recognise one's emotions (Goleman, 2002), control them appropriately and utilise them in the best possible manner in every aspect of life. Goleman (2002) reports that emotional intelligence therefore is twice as important as technical skills and more important than IQ for success in jobs at all levels and has been claimed to validly predict a variety of successful behaviours at work, at a level exceeding that of intelligence.

Components of Mayer and Salovey's 1997 model of emotional intelligence include: a) emotional perception (the ability to be self-aware of emotions and accurately express emotions and emotional needs to others); b) emotional assimilation (ability to distinguish one's different emotions and determine which emotions are reasonable in a certain situation); c) emotional understanding (understand complex emotions of others and analyse transitions, such as progressing from betrayal to anger and grief and the sequence of emotions to overcome negative responses, thus providing insight into others' emotional expressions and behaviours); and d) emotional management (ability to regulate emotions by connecting or disconnecting from an emotion depending on its usefulness in a given situation). These abilities are conceptualised more as emotional intelligence rather than innate intelligence as they are the way in which individuals effectively integrate emotions with thoughts and behaviour and so can act to reduce aversive emotional experiences (Mayer, Caruso & Salovey, 2000). This integration explains the intervention of emotions in an individual's perception of job insecurity and their effect on both commitment and job-related tension.

A study by Stough and De Guara (2008) on 51 subordinates and six superiors from four different companies (Welbourne, 1998) confirmed that participants reporting higher levels of emotional intelligence were more committed towards job performance. Taylor (1992) argues that emotionally intelligent individuals can cope better with life's challenges and control their

emotions more effectively, which contribute to good psychological and physical health. Bar-On (1997) includes stress management and adaptability as two major components of emotional intelligence, while Zeidner and Endler (1996) claim that adaptive coping could be conceptualised as emotional intelligence supporting cognitive and emotional differentiation, allowing one to adapt to change.

Management employees are all employees on a Peromnes job grade nine and higher according to the Hay-guide job-grading system in the organisation being studied. These jobs are characterised by high complexity, general management responsibilities and a high level of field knowledge and experience (Murphy & Davidshofer, 2005). Managers get things done through other people (Robbins, Odendaal & Roodt, 2006). They make decisions, allocate resources and direct the activities of others to attain goals. This socially coordinated unit composed of two or more people, functions on a continuous basis to achieve a common goal or set of goals. Managers oversee activities of others and are responsible for attaining those goals (Robbins, Odendaal & Roodt, 2006).

In linking managers and emotional intelligence, research conducted on more than 500 organisations by the Hay Group and Goleman (1998) shows that: a) emotional intelligence accounts for over 85% of outstanding performance in top leaders; b) emotional intelligence and not IQ predicts top performers; and c) emotional intelligence can be enhanced through specialised coaching development. Organisations whose senior managers had a critical mass of emotional intelligence outperformed annual earnings goals by 20% (McClelland, 1993).

Managers are often referred to as leaders and in differentiating between them, leaders have followers and not subordinates. Many organisational leaders do have subordinates, but only because they are also managers. To lead effectively they have to give up formal authoritarian control, because to lead is to have followers, and following is always a voluntary activity. Leaders are responsible for ensuring that their organisation performs effectively with respect to its aims and objectives and cannot concentrate on organisational production to the virtual exclusion of maintaining or managing the production capacity of the organisation (Covey, 1989).

The leader is responsible for the development of employees such that they are able to build their own capacity and become assets to the organisation. Assisting people with their own development processes requires the ability to lead and manage. The leader intervenes in the development processes of others which become a management task (Childs, 2008). As management responsibilities incorporate effective leadership, this research will view both leaders and managers within a similar context.

An Emotional Intelligence and Leadership study was conducted on 365 managers at Johnson & Johnson to distinguish high performers. Results showed a strong relationship between superior performing leaders and emotional intelligence (Cherniss, 2006), confirming the impact of high emotionally intelligent managers on the organisation and its employees. Managers with high emotional intelligence can empower employees and positively influence employees' coping behaviour. Effective leadership skills depend on the understanding of emotions and the abilities associated with emotional intelligence (Goleman, 1998).

Job insecurity is the expectations that one has about continuity in the job situation (Davey, Kinicki & Scheck, 1991). It is also the perception an individual has about a potential threat to his/her current job.

Dekker and Schaufeli (1995) found that job insecurity resulted in deterioration of well-being such as distress, anxiety and depression among employees of a public transport organisation, with similar results having been concluded by Barling and Kelloway (1996). Job insecurity is critical for influencing work-related outcomes and is an important determinant of employee health. Employee health deteriorates when the demands of the environment become stressful and coping resources are often not sufficient, especially where social support is either shunned or not forthcoming (Kuhnert, Sims & Lahey, 1989). Job insecurity also influences the physical and psychological well-being of employees as it could lead to depression as a result of stress factors such as an demands from family and the threat of potential inability to provide (Kuhnert & Palmer, 1991). Job insecurity also influences job satisfaction as it impairs motivation and work performance; and employee retention where all the negative aspects result in a separation of the

employee from the firm (Ashford, Lee & Bobko, 1989; Burke, 1991). Job insecurity, for the purpose of this research, can therefore be viewed as a stressor with negative influences on the individual. In contrast, Greenhalgh (1982) found that when perceptions of job insecurity were correctly managed through specific management techniques, employees were more productive. During organisational change employees steered towards increased organisational effectiveness as insecurity motivated employees to work harder to secure their positions because security usually accompanies complacency.

Affective organisational commitment is the psychological bond between employees and their employing organisation (Bagram, 2003). According to Meyer and Allen's (1997) multi-dimensional construct regarding organisational commitment, normative commitment describes an individual that feels obliged to remain with the organisation whilst continuance commitment is commitment based on an employee's assumption of the costs involved with leaving the organisation. This research will focus on affective organisational commitment which refers to the employee's emotional attachment to, identification with and involvement in the organisation based on positive feelings or emotions towards the organisation (Allen & Meyer, 1996). The reason for this is that committed individuals who view themselves as capable to deal with the complete demands of the job tend to be more productive (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

Job-related tension is an energy demanding negative emotional experience which usually follows a stimulus, which consciously or unconsciously is interpreted as a threat which leads to a response, aimed at ending this experience (Van Graan, 1981). Job-related tension has the same characteristics as stress, but appears specifically in the work environment and is caused by work-related factors contributing towards consequences for the work situation (Kyriacau, 2001). In a study conducted by Houkes, Janssen, De Jonje and Nijhuis (2001) job-related tension has been shown to result in mental, physical and behavioural stress reactions such as burnout, depression and psychosomatic diseases. Tension is stress which is a mental and physical condition that affects productivity, personal health, effectiveness and quality of work. According to Covey (1989), an event becomes stressful when it is appraised by an individual as a threat to their well-being, distinguishing between primary appraisals (irrelevant, benign-positive or stressful) and

secondary appraisals (evaluation of coping resources). In a potentially stressful situation it becomes critical to implement a coping resource to reduce the tension in order to restore equilibrium and deal with the situation. This coping measure does not always have the desired effect.

A Swinburne University study conducted on 80 employees indicated that emotional intelligence of individuals was indeed related to health and well-being (Gardner, 2005). Regression analysis revealed that emotional management and emotional control were important predictors of occupational stress and that emotional recognition and expression, understanding emotions, emotional management and emotional control were important predictors of individual health. This verifies that the ability to effectively deal with emotions and emotional information in the workplace assists employees in managing occupational stress and in maintaining psychological well-being.

Coping strategies/behaviours are defined by Kleinke (1998) as the efforts we make to manage situations we have appraised as potentially harmful or stressful. Coping strategies/behaviours refer to the cognitive and behavioural efforts individuals use to manage demands appraised as exceeding their personal resources (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Problem-focused coping is aimed at doing something to change the stressful situation for the better, whereas emotion-focused coping is aimed at regulating emotional distress (Bouchard & Sabouran, 1997). Problem-focused behaviour addresses the source of tension directly with the negative effects being anger and abuse. This results in reinforcing perceptions of insecurity and affecting support networks. Positive effects include: understanding, seeking opportunity and establishing constructive support networks. Emotion-focused behaviour serves to minimise emotional distress with negative consequences such as withdrawal, self-blame, wishful thinking and emotional avoidance which leads to inability to manage emotions because of avoiding the situation. Long-term positive outcomes can be attained if authenticity of emotion is assessed and appropriate management is applied (Bouchard & Sabouran, 1997).

Piko (2001) mentions that there is evidence that ways of coping with stress affect not only mental health, but also physical and social well-being. Research by Catalano, Rook and Dooley (1986) suggests that employees under stress tend to adopt negative coping behaviour (defensive reaction) leading to withdrawal from the organisation, whether problem-focused or emotion-focused. As emotions are integral to the way one perceives a situation and feels about the situation and coping is a stabilising factor that one adopts in order to deal with the situation, then it is assumed that individuals with high emotional intelligence will be able to apply more positive coping strategies in stressful situations (Catalano et al., 1986). This means that emotional intelligence will affect the individual's perception of job insecurity towards commitment and the manner in which the individual copes with the situation.

As an ongoing competitive market that even in times of recession needs to maintain a standard and service, the focus of this research is on managers of a major soft drink manufacturing and distribution organisation in South Africa. The specific organisation chosen is a national soft drink company that encourages psychological research and is strongly reliant on the quality of leadership for efficiency within its ranks. There are currently four main regions and six country regions and managers are a major constituent of the organisation. Should return on investment decline restructuring, downsizing may need to be considered for the organisation to ride the tide. Job insecurity may become an issue under such circumstances and the model of Jordan, Ashkanasy and Hartel (2002) could be authenticated through empirical study within the organisation. The organisation encourages employees to be accountable, hard working and loyal, and to set and reach higher targets each year.

The economic downtrend has led to merging of big corporate organisations, downsizing and increasing workload, with organisations prompting survivors to press harder. Managerial staff is becoming a favourable research population regarding their emotional intelligence and the effects of this on their commitment, and ultimately their coping and acquiring that competitive edge.

The focus of this study is to determine whether emotional intelligence displayed by managers within the organisation would help moderate the links between the constructs.

The following research questions can be formulated based on the above-mentioned description of the research problem:

1. How are emotional intelligence, managers, job insecurity, affective commitment, job-related tension and coping behaviour conceptualised in literature?
2. What are the relationships between the constructs in the model amongst managers within the national soft drink company?
3. Does emotional intelligence moderate the relationship between job insecurity and coping behaviour amongst managers within the national soft drink company?

In order to answer the above questions, the following research objectives are set:

1.2 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The research objectives are divided into a general objective and specific objectives.

1.2.1 General objective

The general objective of this research is to determine the relationships between job insecurity, affective organisational commitment, job-related tension, and coping behaviour of managers, and whether the dispositional variable of emotional intelligence acts as moderator in these interactions (Jordan, Ashkanasy & Hartel, 2002).

1.2.2 Specific objectives

The specific objectives of the research are:

1. To determine how emotional intelligence, managers, job insecurity, affective commitment, job-related tension and coping behaviour are conceptualised in literature.

2. To determine the relationships between the constructs of the model amongst the managers of a national soft drink company.
3. To determine if emotional intelligence moderates the relationship between job insecurity and coping behaviour amongst managers.

1.3 PARADIGM PERSPECTIVE OF THE RESEARCH

1.3.1 Intellectual Climate

Intellectual climate refers to the types of meta-theoretical assumptions which are held by those practising within a specific discipline (Mouton & Marais, 1992). These assumptions are also convictions and values that are not directly connected to theoretical goals of the particular research procedure with convictions often not directly testable.

1.3.2 Discipline

The research falls within the boundaries of the behavioural sciences and more specifically industrial psychology which is a field of scientific inquiry that concerns advancing knowledge regarding people in the workplace, and the practice thereof concerns applying knowledge to solve problems in the workplace (Muchinsky, 1997). Applied fields of industrial psychology are: research methodology, personnel psychology, psychological assessment, organisational psychology, ergonomics, career psychology, employee relations, consumer psychology, employee well-being and organisational well-being. This research focuses on aspects of research methodology, psychological assessment, organisational psychology, organisational well-being and personnel psychology.

This research will utilise research methodology which is the application of scientific methods that include testing and statistical evaluation of data to determine the proposition (Muchinsky, 1997). The sub field of psychometrics will through assessment determine the variation between employees pertaining to the different constructs.

Personnel psychology is a practical discipline concerned with selection, recruitment, placement and training of employees and centres; its attention on individual differences in behaviour and work performance as well as the methods used for measuring and predicting such performance (Muchinsky, 1997). Job insecurity can have a determinable effect on work performance and is therefore an important topic to study (Duxbury, 2004). To obtain and maintain productive employees, the organisation must give attention to coping strategies.

Organisational psychology is concerned with performance in the organisation (Muchinsky, 1997). It involves behaviour regarding, roles, job-related tension and personal feelings of commitment towards the organisation and communication patterns.

The field of employee and organisational well-being is concerned with the psychological well-being of the employee, involving behaviour and adjustment in the work situation (Muchinsky, 1997). This research hypothesises that the effects of enhancing emotional intelligence of employees will achieve and maintain improved commitment and a state of well-being in each employee and thus improved coping behaviour.

The aim of the research is to ascertain whether managers displaying high emotional intelligence can have an optimistic influence on perceptions of job insecurity, thus allowing them to adopt positive coping behaviour.

1.3.3 Meta-theoretical assumptions

Several paradigms are relevant to this research. Firstly, the literature review is done within the humanistic and positive psychology paradigm, and secondly the empirical study is done within the fortigenic and behaviourism paradigms as well as the person-environment fit theory.

1.3.3.1 Literature review

The literature review is done within the humanistic and positive psychology paradigm.

Humanists concentrate on recognising and cultivating the natural, positive potential of human behaviour and encourage commitment and meanings in what people do. Behaviour is goal-directed towards satisfying needs of an individual, with emotion accompanying such goal-directed behaviour being related to the perceived significance of the behaviour for the maintenance and enhancement of the individual. This explains why people respond differently to work situations or employee relationships (Muchinsky, Kriek & Schreuder, 2005).

Positive psychology is concerned with enhancing subjective well-being and happiness and accurately predicting factors that influence such states. Positive affectivity is correlated with the personality trait extroversion and negative affectivity is correlated with the trait neuroticism. Positive affectivity contains the sub-dimensions of joviality (e.g. cheerful, happy and lively), self-assurance (e.g. confidence, strong and daring), and attentiveness (e.g. alert, concentrating and determined). Negative affectivity is one aspect of the avoidance-oriented behavioural inhibition system. This explains how positive emotions and positive personal traits can be associated with high emotional intelligence and consequent constructive coping behaviour (Watson, 2002).

1.3.3.2 Empirical study

The behaviouristic paradigm emphasises the study of observable behaviour and learning is considered to be the most important determinant of behaviour. Highly influential in industrial psychology, the study will make use of behaviourism which is characterised by research designs, objectivity and measurement to verify the hypothesis. In this study human behaviour, as manifested in job insecurity, will be studied in the environment and situation of the organisation, which will in turn have an influence on the individual's emotional intelligence. As personality and behaviour development are learned responses acquired through an individual's development

history, this behaviour can also be unlearned in certain conditions. This can be used in training to teach individuals not to react in certain ways.

The salutogenic paradigm investigated the origins of health and how people stay healthy amidst stressful situations (Antonovsky, 1987). The argument is, however, that the study of health should be much wider and the term fortigenesis was developed referring to strengths. The two major paradigms of fortigenesis are engagement and burnout. Burnout is a persistent, negative work-related state of mind in normal individuals resulting in negative coping behaviours (Schaufeli, Salanova, Gonzalez-Roma & Bakker, 2002); and engagement comprises of vigour, dedication and absorption (Maslach, Schaufeli & Leiter, 2001).

The person-environment fit theory (Probst, 2002) differentiates between individuals and environmental characteristics, and stress depends on the perceived imbalance between an individual's perceptions of the demands made by the environment and the individual's perceived ability and motivation to cope. In terms of the model, job insecurity is perceived by an employee as a change demanding an amount of adaptation which may be difficult to cope with.

1.3.4 Market of intellectual resources

The market of intellectual resources can be described as beliefs that refer to the epistemic status of scientific statements with the two most common being theoretical beliefs concerning the nature and structure of phenomena and methodological beliefs which describe the nature and structure of the research (Mouton & Marais, 1992). Testable results from theoretical beliefs are divided into conceptual definitions and theories.

1.3.4.1 Theoretical beliefs

Theoretical beliefs can be described as all beliefs that yield testable results regarding social phenomena (Mouton & Marais, 1992). The following theoretical hypotheses serve as starting point for this research and are divided into conceptual definitions, models and theories.

A. Conceptual definitions

The relevant conceptual definitions are given below:

Emotional intelligence is defined by Mayer and Salovey (1997) as the ability to detect and to manage emotional cues and information. A widely accepted scientific definition of emotional intelligence is that it is the ability to monitor one's own and others' emotions; to discriminate among them; and to use the information to guide one's thinking and actions with the ability to: be aware of one's own and others' emotions; be able to manage these emotions; and understand the complex relationships that can occur between emotions and likely emotional reactions (Mayer, Caruso & Salovey, 2000).

Management employees are all employees in the organisation being studied on a Peromnes job grade eight and higher using the Hay-guide job-grading system (Hom & Griffeth, 1991). These jobs are characterised by high complexity, general management responsibilities and a high level of field knowledge and experience. Managers are employees in the organisation whose jobs are characterised by high complexity, general management responsibilities and a high level of field knowledge and experience and to whom subordinates report (Hom & Griffeth, 1991).

Job insecurity is defined as a discrepancy between the security employees would like their jobs to provide; and the actual level they perceive to exist (Hartley, Jacobson, Klandermans & Van Vuuren, 1991). Caplan et al. (1975) refer to job insecurity as general cognitive uncertainty about future security and a feeling of powerlessness to maintain desired continuity in a work situation.

Affective organisational commitment is a psychological state that is characteristic of the employee's relationship with the organisation and how it affects the employee's decision to remain with the organisation (Maslach, Schaufeli & Leiter, 2001). Meyer and Allen (1991; 1997) view affective commitment as referring to an employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organisation. The three types of organisational commitment are normative commitment (employees stay because they feel they should); continuance (employees

stay because they need to); and affective commitment (employees stay because they want to) (Meyer & Allen, 1991). The focus in this research is on the affective dimension.

Job-related tension is an energy-demanding, negative emotional experience that follows a stimulus which is either consciously or unconsciously interpreted as a threat leading to a response aimed at ending the undesired experience (Van Graan, 1981). Job-related tension differs in that it appears in the work environment and is caused by work-related factors culminating in consequences for the work situation (Kyriacou, 2001).

Coping behaviour is defined in this research document according to the suggestion of Rotondo, Carlson and Kincaid (2003) as the problem-focused behavioural actions or emotion-focused cognitive orientation used to eliminate or manage the effect of the stressor. Problem-solving coping involves strategies to solve, or minimise effects of a stressful situation. Emotion-focused coping includes strategies that involve self-preoccupation, fantasy or other conscious activities of effect regulation (Zeidner & Endler, 1996).

B. Models

A model suggests ways to answer new questions. Models have a heuristic function and set an 'as if' (Mouton & Marais, 1996). A model is aimed at the simplified expression of relationships between main components of a process. It does not only classify phenomena but also tries to systematise the relationship among them 'as if' (Mouton & Marais, 1996).

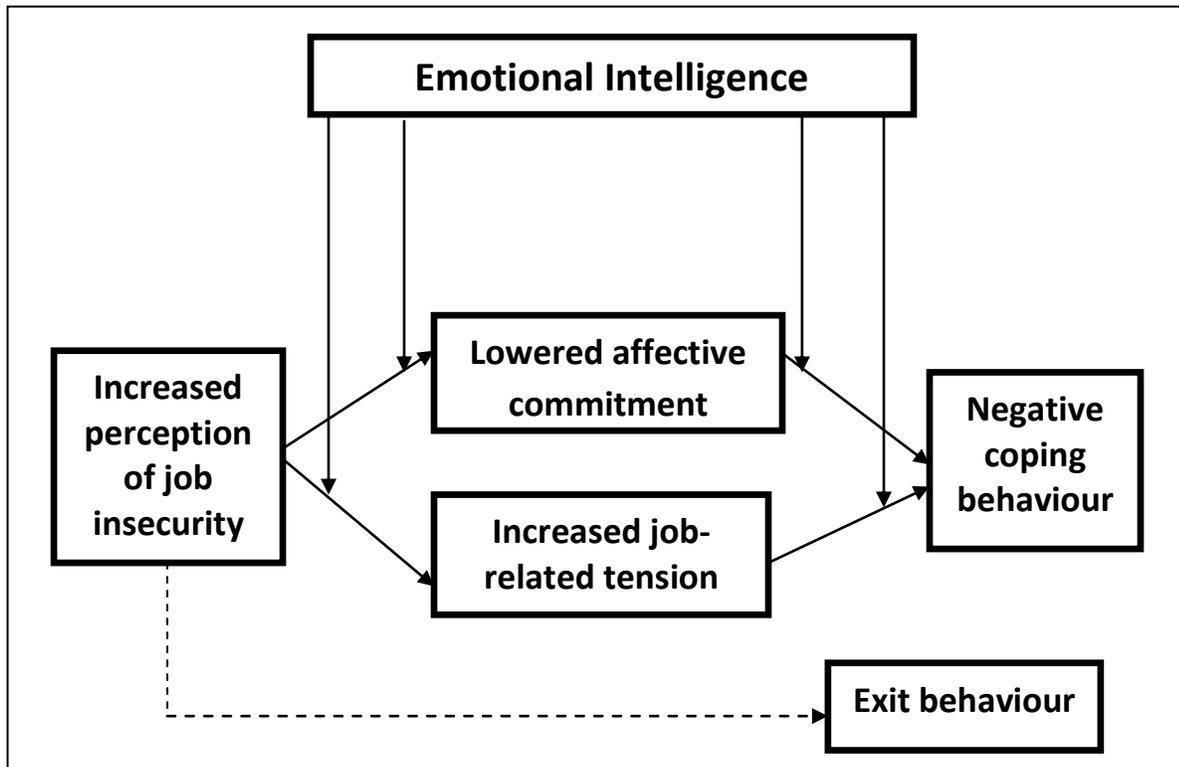


Figure 1: The theoretical model of Jordan, Ashkanasy and Hartel (2002)

This two-stage theoretical model by Jordan, Ashkanasy, and Hartel (2002) depicts a link between job insecurity and workplace behaviour. The cognitive processes involved in generating emotions (Ortony, Clore & Collins, 1988) stem from evaluation of the perception of job insecurity resulting in the interrelated emotional reactions; lowered affective commitment and increased job-related tension (Kahn et al., 1964). These ultimately lead to negative coping behaviours, such as hyper-vigilance, “coping out”, “buck passing” and avoidance, distancing, wishful thinking and defensive decision-making. Actual behaviour is interpreted when the intention behind the action is identified (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). Coping behaviours are intended to reduce stress ensuing from the perception of job insecurity (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984).

The first stage of the model (Jordan, Ashkanasy & Hartel, 2002) illustrates that emotions likely to occur as a result of perceptions of job insecurity, are lowered affective organisational commitment and increased job-related tension. These constructs lead to negative coping

behaviours that are either unsuccessful, or serve to avoid or temporarily reduce perceptions of job insecurity, and institute a dysfunctional cycle with possible dire consequences for the organisation as a whole (Duxbury, 2004).

The second stage of the model demonstrates the effects of lowered affective commitment and increased job-related tension culminating into negative coping behaviour. Emotional intelligence is illustrated as the moderating dispositional variable influencing the constructs. The basic assumption of the proposition is that employees with high emotional intelligence are better equipped to deal with affective and behavioural implications of job insecurity than those with low emotional intelligence.

The Jordan et al. (2002) model argues that individual differences contribute to employees' ability to manage perceptions of job insecurity - maintain high performance or deteriorate - and proposes that high emotionally intelligent employees are better able to deal emotionally with job insecurity and will be able to amend the effect of job insecurity on their affective commitment. This frequently leads to increased work commitment and effort, positive coping behaviours (problem-focused), and reframing of perceptions of insecurity as an existing challenge. The model therefore demonstrates that negative coping behaviour results from an employee's emotional reactions (disposition) to job insecurity - behaviour reactions that emerge from both situational and dispositional variables.

Disposition describes the tendency of a person to act according to his/her unique character. By introducing a dispositional variable (emotional intelligence) in the model the individual difference affects the way individuals perceive, understand and cope with insecurity. One should thus be able to predict the manner (positive or negative) in which individuals will be able to engage in coping behaviours (House, Shane & Harold, 1996). The dispositional variable, emotional intelligence, is proposed by Jordan et al. (2002) to act as moderator reflecting individual difference that predicts an employee's emotional and behavioural responses to job insecurity (House, Shane & Harold, 1996). Jordan et al. (2002) claim that employees with high emotional intelligence will manifest higher affective commitment in response to job insecurity.

Often employees with high emotional intelligence determine that feelings of job insecurity are justified and seek employment elsewhere. Research (Schwab, 1991; Williams & Livingstone, 1994) shows that employees able to handle change are most likely to leave the organisation, because these very skills and abilities contribute to the employees' potential future employability. Alternatively, high emotionally intelligent employees may review their perceptions of insecurity as an exciting challenge and redirect their anxiety into productive behaviour, thus making their jobs more secure. Emotional assimilation enables them to adopt multiple perspectives and select from several coping strategies. Employees with low emotional intelligence will withdraw from participation, minimising immediate anxiety but detrimental to employment security in the long-term. Therefore, emotional intelligence moderates effects of perceptions of job insecurity on job-related tension (Schwab, 1991; Williams & Livingstone, 1984).

1.3.4.2 Methodological beliefs

Methodological beliefs can be defined as methodological preferences, assumptions, and presuppositions about what constitutes effective research. This is a belief that concerns the nature of social science and scientific research (Mouton & Marais, 1996). It also includes scientific philosophical traditions and the most methodological models (qualitative and quantitative). The empirical study is presented within the behaviouristic, fortigenic and person-environment fit theory frameworks.

1.4 RESEARCH METHOD

This research, pertaining to the specific objectives, consists of two phases, namely a literature review and empirical study.

1.4.1 Phase 1: Literature review

In the literature review the focus will be on previous literature done on all the constructs used in this research, namely emotional intelligence, managers, job-insecurity, effective commitment, job-related tension and coping behaviour. The following resources will be consulted:

- EBSCO-Host
- Internet resources
- Library catalogues
- Psychological journals
- Books
- Research articles

1.4.2 Phase 2: Empirical study

The empirical study consists of the research design, participants, measuring battery and statistical analysis.

1.4.2.1 Research design

The research design is a set of plans and procedures used by researchers to obtain empirical evidence (data) about isolated variables of interest (Heppner, Kivlighan & Wanpold, 1999). The aim of the research design is to enable researchers to answer questions as validly, objectively, accurately and economically as possible (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000). This study will make use of descriptive quantitative research and use a cross-sectional research design to answer the research questions. This design can also be used to assess relationships among variables within a population and is ideally suited for descriptive and predictive functions associated with correlation research (Shaughnessy, Zechmeister &, Zechmeister, 2003).

1.4.2.2 Study population

A sample of managers ($n = 300$) will be drawn whereby the researcher uses a natural order of sampling frame, selects an arbitrary starting point and selects items (names) at a pre-selected interval. According to Struwig and Stead (2003), the advantages of systematic sampling lie in the simplicity of drawing the sample and that it is easy to check. The drawback, however, is that if sampling intervals are related to a periodic ordering of the population, increased variability may be introduced.

Written permission to do the research will be obtained from the organisation explaining the importance of the study for individuals as well as the organisation. The research objectives will be clearly indicated and the research procedure explained. The participants will be informed via their intranet and briefed about the importance of this study. All participants will be informed that their answers will remain confidential and that their privacy will be respected. The completion of the measuring battery will be administered using e-mail and the Internet. Each participant will receive an e-mail reminding them of the study and encouraging them to click on a hyperlink to a website where the questionnaire can be completed. The participants will be able to complete the questionnaire in their own time and submit their answers. The answers will automatically be updated in the answer database created beforehand, from where the final data will be collected for analysis.

1.4.2.3 Measuring Battery

The constructs studied will be measured with the following instruments:

A biographical questionnaire will be used to gather information about age, gender, race, marital status, consolidated years of work experience, level of education, language and job grade. This questionnaire consists of multiple choice questions where the respondents only tick the answer that applies to them.

The Emotional Intelligence Scale (EIS) (Schutte et al., 1998) will be used to measure emotional intelligence. The scale consists of 33 items based on the conceptual model of emotional intelligence of Salovey and Meyer (1990), assessing the extent to which respondents characteristically identify, understand, harness and regulate emotions in themselves and others (thirteen items measure appraisal and expression of emotion, ten measure regulation of emotion and another ten measure utilisation of emotion). The items are arranged along a five-point Likert-type scale where respondents rate themselves on each item from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). A consistency of 0.87 to 0.90 and a two-week test-retest reliability of 0.78 were reported by Schutte et al., (1998).

The Job Insecurity Questionnaire (JIQ) of De Witte (2000) will be used to measure job insecurity. It consists of 11 items that summarise both cognitive and affective dimensions of job insecurity arranged along a five-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (strongly agree) to 5 (strongly disagree). Job insecurity is assessed according to cognitive, affective and total dimensions for this study with the average score across all 11 items taken as the overall insecurity of the respondent. A low score indicates that the respondent is prone to a high degree of job insecurity whilst a high score indicates a low degree of job insecurity. De Witte (2000) states that the items of the questionnaire measuring global insecurity displayed a Cronbach alpha coefficient of 0.92, with five items of the affective job insecurity having a Cronbach alpha coefficient of 0.85. De Witte also found an overlap between the cognitive and affective factor loadings and reported that both scales correlated very high at $r = 0.76$.

The Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) of Meyer and Allen (1997) will be used to measure the affective organisational commitment of participants. It consists of 24 items and is based on the premise that organisational commitment is a multi-dimensional construct which

includes affective, continuance and normative commitment. A seven-point Likert-type scale is used with 1 (strongly agree) to 7 (strongly disagree) and the Cronbach alpha coefficients are 0.8 for every subscale with inter-correlations between populations often above 0.9, indicating that the combined factor is congruent. For the purpose of this research only the affective sub-scale will be used.

The COPE Questionnaire (COPE) of Carver, Scheier and Weintraub (1989) will be used to measure the various ways in which people cope. This questionnaire comprises of 53 items measuring 14 different coping strategies. Five subscales measure various aspects of problem-focused coping, five subscales measure different aspects of emotion-focused coping and four subscales measure avoidance behaviour. COPE is in the format of a self-report and participants describe how they handle stressful situations. A four-point type Likert-type scale ranges from 1 (I don't usually do this at all) to 4 (I usually do this a lot). Carver et al. (1989) reported Cronbach alpha coefficients varying from 0.45 to 0.92 with sufficient levels of reliability across subscales excluding mental disengagement which measured lower than 0.60. Test-retest reliability was 0.89. Higher scores indicate that a particular coping strategy is likely to be used in a stressful situation with Cronbach alpha coefficients from 0.80 to 0.90 (Joubert, 2003).

The Experience of Work and Life Circumstances Questionnaire (WLQ) of Van Zyl and Van der Walt (1991) will be used to measure stress levels in individuals who have reading and writing skills equivalent to Grade 10 level. The results identify employees under stress and determine the main stressors in their environments. The first dimension of the questionnaire indicates the level of stress of the employee; normal, high or very high. Measurement is conducted through the assessment of 40 questions on a five-point Likert-type scale which indicates how often certain stress emotions (for example, depression or frustration) occur. A high score indicates a high level of stress (Van Zyl & Van der Walt, 1991). Reliability coefficients, measured by the Kuder-Richardson formula 8, range from 0.83 to 0.92 and test-retest reliability varies from 0.62 to 0.80 which compares favourably with other similar questionnaires (Van Zyl & Van der Walt, 1991). Oosthuizen (2004) found a Cronbach alpha coefficient of 0.92.

1.4.2.4 Statistical analysis

The Statistical Consulting Services of the North-West University, Vaal Triangle Campus, will do the statistical analysis using the SPSS program (SPSS, 2007).

Cronbach alpha coefficients inter-item correlation coefficients and factor analysis (the covariance among variables in terms of a few underlying random quantities called factors) will be used to assess the reliability and validity of the measuring instruments (Clark & Watson, 1995). Descriptive statistics (e.g. means, standard deviation, skewness and kurtosis) will be used to analyse the data. Pearson product correlation coefficients will be used to specify the relationships between the variables. A cut-off point of 0.30 (medium effect) will be set for the practical significance of correlation coefficients (Cohen, 1988). To investigate the relative impact of predictors on outcomes, linear regression analysis will be used (Cohen, Cohen, West & Aiken, 2003). Moderating effects will be determined with multiple regressions analysis.

1.5 CHAPTER DIVISION

The chapters in this mini-dissertation are presented as follows:

Chapter 1: Research proposal and problem statement

Chapter 2: Research article

Chapter 3: Conclusions, limitations and recommendations

1.6 CHAPTER SUMMARY

In this chapter, an overview of the study was given with specific reference to the problem statement and objectives to the study, as well as background information on emotional intelligence as a moderator for job insecurity and coping behaviour for managers at a national soft drink organisation. The research method was discussed focusing on the literature review, aspects of the study population, measuring battery, research design and method of the empirical study.

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CHAPTER 2

RESEARCH ARTICLE

THE INFLUENCE OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE OF MANAGERS ON JOB INSECURITY AND COPING BEHAVIOUR

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ABSTRACT

The primary objective of this research was to investigate the proposed model of Jordan, Ashkanasy and Hartel (2002) which links perceptions of job insecurity to emotional reactions and negative coping behaviours. As per the model, the role of emotional intelligence as moderator of these reactions was also investigated. A cross-sectional survey design (n = 296) was used and the constructs were measured by means of the Emotional Intelligence Scale (EIS), the Job Insecurity Questionnaire (JIQ), the Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ), the COPE Questionnaire (COPE) and the Experience of Work and Life Circumstances Questionnaire (WLQ). Results indicated that, although job insecurity, affective organisational commitment, job-related stress and emotional intelligence had a main effect on coping behaviours, emotional intelligence did not moderate the relationships.

PROBLEM STATEMENT AND LITERATURE STUDY

Job insecurity is felt in a climate where workplace changes such as restructuring with a purpose of downsizing, and economic globalisation often occur (Goleman, 1998). Ironically, many of the changes intended to eliminate jobs are in conflict with efforts to improve the quality of the working environment (Cahill, Landsbergis & Schnall, 1995). Change produces a range of emotions and feelings in individuals requiring micro-level management (Jordan, 2003). Research has identified certain emotional aspects of dealing with change that indicate the potential value of an employee's emotional intelligence in predicting that individual's behaviour during organisational change (Goleman, 1998).

Change can be seen as a challenge or opportunity and activates positive emotions such as excitement, enthusiasm and creativity (Goleman, Boyatzis & McKee, 2002). Alternatively, change can also be threatening and produce negative emotions such as resentment, anger, cynicism, fear, anxiety, and withdrawal (French, 2001). Emotionally intelligent individuals are perceived to cope better and deal with the affective and behavioural implications of job insecurity during organisational change (Jordan, Ashkanasy, & Hartel, 2002).

There is a considerable amount of literature on emotional intelligence in organisations that assumes it directly results in superior performance, organisational commitment, organisational citizenship and transformational leadership (Goleman, 1998). Emotional intelligence can serve as a predictor of an employee's attempts to successfully manage change and assist in predicting specific behaviours that surface during change (Jordan, 2003). Emotional intelligence can also provide insight for managers in allotting tasks to staff during the implementation of change or in determining employees who require assistance to manage the change process (Jordan, 2003).

Research suggests that emotional intelligence plays a more important role in career success and job performance than general intelligence (cognitive ability) (Eisenberger, Stinglhamber, Vandenberghe, Sucharski, & Rhoades, 2002; Goleman, 1998). This does not undervalue an individual's intelligence quotient (IQ) which would be a much stronger predictor than EI of

which jobs or professions people can enter, because it is an indication of what a person can process and predicts what technical expertise that person can master in a given field. IQ, then, plays a greater role than EI in determining what jobs people can hold. However, cognitive intelligence does not by itself predict whether one will be a star performer or rise to management or leadership positions in one's field (Goleman, 2008). Highly conscientious employees lacking social and emotional intelligence perform more poorly than those high in conscientiousness and emotional intelligence (Watkin, 2000). High performers also exhibit considerably more strengths in social and emotional competencies as well as in cognitive capacities. Overall, emotional intelligence is found to be the single most important factor for superior performance from entry-level jobs to top executive positions (Watkin, 2000).

Emotional intelligence correlates with the ability to provide constructive feedback and incite team achievement (Goleman, 1995). The importance of this is highlighted in a study of managers where Baron (1990) found the main reason for conflict in the workplace was unfavourable criticism or lack of providing employees with a balanced view of their performance. It is suggested in the model of Jordan et al. (2002) that as emotional intelligence moderates stimulus behaviour, then at managerial levels it could have a positive influence on subordinates' ability to work successfully. As one third of the workforce comprises individuals whose skills are highly specialised and can be productive if their activities are well coordinated, the social skills component of emotional intelligence is vital for success (Druker, 1994).

Research on the association between employee satisfaction and job performance suggests that the most important contributor to feelings of employee engagement, empowerment and satisfaction is founded on their relationship with managers of the organisation (Eisenberger et al., 2002; Ribelin, 2003). In a 20-year study including 60 000 interviews, the Saratoga Institute reports that 80% of turnover is directly related to unsatisfactory employee relationships with their managers. This is supported by Career Systems International (2005) that determined that the top five retention factors in an organisation include: exciting work/challenge (48.4%); career growth/learning (42.6%); relationships/working with great people (41.8%); fair pay (31.8%); and supportive management/great boss (25.1%). Herman (1999) reached the conclusion that 75% of

people voluntarily leaving jobs quit their jobs as a direct result of their relationships with their managers. Furthermore, poorly managed workgroups are half as productive and almost 45% less profitable than well-managed groups, and employees' productivity and duration of their stay at a company are determined by the employees' relationship with their immediate supervisor (Goleman, Boyatzis & Mckee, 2008).

The manager with high emotional intelligence can therefore, improve job satisfaction and reduce stress through positive interpersonal relations (Goleman, Boyatzis & Mckee, 2008). Loyalty and commitment to the work group and the manager are considered components of organisational commitment which increase when there is a network of social relationships. According to the model of Jordan et al. (2002), individuals with high emotional intelligence may therefore be more committed to the organisation (Kelly & Caplan, 1993).

Cahill et al. (1995) suggest that employees naturally resent participating in changes that may lead to their own job loss, however, the model of Jordan et al. (2002) portrayed in figure 2, is based on the idea that emotional variables can partially explain the discrepant findings about the performance of employees experiencing job insecurity. They propose that emotional intelligence could moderate employees' reactions to job insecurity and their ability to cope with associated stress (Jordan et al., 2002).

In view of escalating news of layoffs, outsourcing, corporate bankruptcies and downsizing, feelings of job insecurity contribute towards a decline of physical and mental health (Swanbro, 2006). Job insecurity is viewed as a stressor that threatens health and achievement and individuals react to this stress in an attempt to achieve optimally. This research will apply theory to indicate the role that emotional intelligence plays in the behavioural reactions to the stressor.

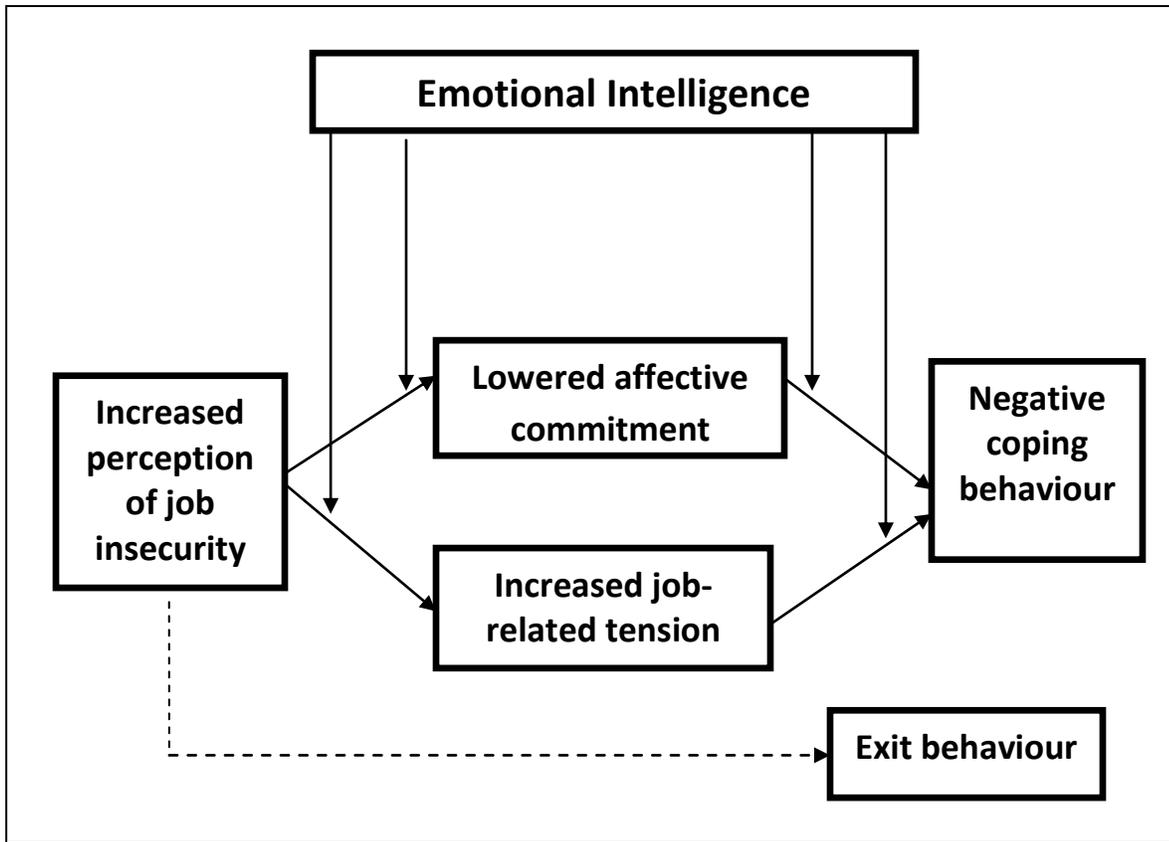


Figure 2: The theoretical model of Jordan, Ashkanasy and Hartel (2002)

The model of Jordan et al. (2002) depicted in figure 2 illustrates that emotional intelligence explains the inconsistent findings associated with the performance of employees experiencing job insecurity. Jordan et al. (2002) propose that emotional intelligence acts as a moderator of employees' reactions to job insecurity and their ability to cope with resulting stress.

The two-stage model of Jordan et al. (2002) demonstrates a link between job insecurity and workplace behaviour based on an employee's perception of job insecurity as described by Ortony, Clore and Collins' (1998) theory of the cognitive process involved in producing emotions. Two interrelated emotional reactions result from this cognitive perception: lowered affective commitment and increased job-related tension which according to Jordan et al. (2002) lead to negative behaviour (Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek, & Rosenthal, 1964). These behaviours are conceptualised in the model as negative coping behaviours and defined as coping behaviours

that may be unsuccessful, assist in temporarily reducing perceptions of job insecurity, or avoiding them (Jordan et al., 2002). Jordan et al. (2002) also propose that the dispositional variable of emotional intelligence moderates the links between perceptions of job insecurity, the resulting affective reactions and subsequent coping behaviour. Employees high in emotional intelligence are better able to cope with the consequences of the effects linked to perceptions of job insecurity.

In order to understand the different concepts in the model, each will now be discussed and linked to one another in the model. Salovey and Mayer (1990) originally defined **emotional intelligence** as the ability of an individual to monitor one's own and others' emotions; to discriminate among the positive and negative effects of emotion; and to use emotional information to guide one's thinking and actions. Components of Mayer and Salovey's 1997 model of emotional intelligence include: a) emotional perception (the ability to be self-aware of emotions and accurately express emotions and emotional needs to others); b) emotional assimilation (ability to distinguish one's different emotions and determine which emotions are reasonable in a certain situation); c) emotional understanding (understand complex emotions of others and analyse transitions, such as progressing from betrayal to anger and grief; and the sequence of emotions to overcome negative responses, thus providing insight into others' emotional expressions and behaviours); and d) emotional management (ability to regulate emotions by connecting or disconnecting from an emotion depending on its usefulness in a given situation) (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). These abilities are conceptualised as emotional intelligence as they are the way in which individuals effectively integrate emotions with thoughts and behaviour and so can act to reduce aversive emotional experiences. This integration explains the intervention of emotions in an individual's perception of job insecurity and their effect on both commitment and job-related tension (Mayer, Caruso & Salovey, 2000).

Individuals with the ability to be aware of emotions and to control these emotions will experience less stress during organisational change (Jordan, 2003). They will also be in a better position to assist others in reducing stress and anxiety that accompany organisational change, for

they will be able to discern others' emotions and take appropriate action to manage those emotions before attitudes begin to take a negative effect (Jordan, 2003).

Job insecurity and its antecedents could be perceived as personal injustice and some employees may exhibit feelings of anger that may cause deviation from completing a specific task (Gilliland, Steiner & Skarlicki 2002; Huy, 1999; Wong & Law, 2002). Individuals with high emotional intelligence become aware of their anger and its source and are able to regulate that anger to motivate their performance (Sosik & Megerian 1999). Individuals with low emotional intelligence dwell on the injustice that triggered the anger, allowing it to consume their thoughts. Thus, their ability to cope with the change and maintain their performance is impaired (Gilliland, Steiner & Skarlicki 2002). Goleman (1998) argued that emotional intelligence brings about emotional competence which is a prerequisite to performance. Emotional intelligence inspires employee potential for learning, and emotional competence converts that potential into abilities for mastering tasks (Goleman, 1998).

The importance of emotional intelligence in perceptions of job insecurity is thus evident in the proposed model used in this study. According to Jordan et al. (2002), individuals with high emotional intelligence could reassess their perceptions of job insecurity and perceive it as a challenge by controlling and redirecting their concerns into productive behaviour with a better chance of securing their jobs. Emotional assimilation, which refers to the ability of an individual to differentiate between different emotions experienced and effectively utilise those affecting their thought processes (Mayer & Salovey, 1997), would also help them choose from an array of coping strategies with a long-term perspective. Jordan et al. (2002) propose that employees with low emotional intelligence withdraw from active participation, completing the minimum work required to reduce immediate anxiety which is a short-term strategy and does not favour the issue of job insecurity. In accordance with Jordan et al.'s model (2002) and the view of House, Shane and Harold (1996), the dispositional variable of emotional intelligence therefore plays a vital role in the individual's perception of job insecurity and resulting behaviour in the organisation.

The focus of this study is on the emotional intelligence of managers, where **management** is defined as working with and through individuals and groups to accomplish organisational goals,

and includes the major activities of planning, organising, controlling and leading (Robbins, Odendaal & Roodt, 2006). Managers are employees in the organisation whose jobs are characterised by high complexity, general management responsibilities and a high level of field knowledge and experience and to whom subordinates report (Hom & Griffeth, 1991). Leadership is a related term and is defined as a process by which a person influences others to accomplish an objective and directs the organisation in a way that makes it more cohesive and coherent. Leaders apply their leadership attributes, such as beliefs, values, ethics, character, knowledge and skills in order to achieve this (Goleman et al., 2002).

This research acknowledges the difference between leadership and management but accords with the view that effective management requires a certain amount of leadership capacity. The ability of managers to implement successful leadership skills is a result of their behavioural response to a situation. In this study to be effective in helping employees manage change, managers first need to be aware of and to manage their own feelings of anxiety and uncertainty as emotions are contagious. Employees will emulate a manager who sets an example in managing his or her feelings and emotions. Thereafter, they need to be aware of the emotional reactions of employees and act to help people cope with those reactions (Cherniss, 2001). Managers need to keep employees actively involved in monitoring and managing their emotional reactions and those of others, even in the face of job insecurity (Cherniss, 2001).

Managers whose employees show commitment are managers who manage with emotional intelligence (Cherniss & Goleman, 2003). Emotional intelligence accounts for over 85% of outstanding performance in top leaders and annual earnings outperformed goals by 20% in organisations of which senior managers were perceived to harbour high levels of emotional intelligence (Watkin, 2000).

A manager is responsible for the development of employees, to enable them to build their own capacity and become greater assets to the organisation. Assisting people with their own development processes requires the ability to work in two opposing spheres – confrontation and support. Effective management, ultimately, does not depend on position alone, but on the respect

a manager can command through behaviour and the ability to manage transition (Goleman, 2002). A manager must empathise with and understand reasons for the behaviour of employees and be willing to assume full responsibility for their mistakes and shortcomings. While demonstrating ability to manage employees successfully and fairly, the emotionally intelligent manager's door remains open to everyone, in a down-to-earth manner and free from formal procedures (Hill, 2004).

An intemperate manager destroys the vigour and endurance of subordinates and loses their respect. Criticism destroys initiative and discourages the use of imagination, limiting individuality and wearing away self-reliance (Hill, 2004). Managers with high emotional intelligence understand human nature and that criticism plants seeds of fear and resentment, and get the best from employees by constructive suggestion, ensuring quality service and customer loyalty (Hill, 2004).

Effective managers should be able to manage the stressor of **job insecurity**. Job insecurity is defined as a discrepancy between the security employees would like their jobs to provide and the level they perceive to exist (Hartley, Jacobson, Klandermans & Van Vuuren, 1991). Caplan et al. (1975) refer to job insecurity as general cognitive uncertainty about future security and a feeling of powerlessness to maintain desired continuity in a work situation.

According to Jacobson (1991), job insecurity is assumed to have both a cognitive and affective quality. The cognitive quality of job insecurity refers to concern regarding the probability of losing one's job and the affective quality involves the concern, beliefs and feelings about the insecurity (De Witte, 2000). De Witte, (2000) also proposes that perceptions of job insecurity commence with a cognitive appraisal of the situation that could arise; and which sets off emotions based on the meaning associated with the job loss or loss of the job-related features. Job insecurity, therefore, is not only about the fear of losing a job, but also includes elements such as the fear of losing job stability, positive performance appraisals and promotions (Greenhalgh & Rosenblatt 1984; Jacobson 1991). Mauno, Kinnunen, Mäkikangas and Nätti, (2005) add that objective conditions concerning an insecure job situation define antecedents of

job insecurity. The cognitive evaluation of the perception of job insecurity is therefore influenced by individual difference of the dispositional variable of emotional intelligence as proposed by the model of Jordan et al. (2002).

The link between job insecurity and workplace behaviour is illustrated in the two-stage model of Jordan et al. (2002) in figure 2. The first stage indicates the possible emotional reactions, lowered affective organisational commitment and increased job-related tension, likely to occur as a result of job insecurity. Jordan et al. (2002) concluded that individual perceptions of job insecurity impact on the manner in which individuals behave in the organisation and the dispositional variable of emotional intelligence influences the way they would perceive, understand and cope with job insecurity. It is therefore possible to predict whether individuals would engage in negative or positive coping behaviours.

In contrast with the model, Sverke and Hellgren (2002) conceded that people perceive facts in different ways, with personality playing a role in the manner in which individuals differ in their reactions to the perception of job insecurity. The perception of job insecurity holds stressful consequences for the employee and the organisation, and due to the subjective nature of this perception, individuals react differently to this possible stress situation (Sverke, Hellgren, Näswall, Chirumbolo, De Witte & Goslinga, 2004). Greenhalgh (1982) found that under effective management, perceptions of job insecurity during organisational change can lead to increased employee effectiveness. Employees tend to become complacent when they feel secure in their jobs (Greenhalgh & Rosenblatt, 1984), whereas feelings of job insecurity may prompt them to work harder to secure positions and be in line for contingent rewards. This explains the inconsistent findings in the performance of employees experiencing job insecurity and the exposition of emotional intelligence as a moderating variable in the model of Jordan et al. (2002).

Security of employment is an antecedent of organisational commitment (Dekker & Schaufeli, 1995). Lack of control (autonomy) over conditions that bring about the perception of job insecurity contribute to poor social relations. This automatically leads to a lack of social support

accentuating job insecurity and leading to a further increase in job-related tension; often emphasised by emotional dissonance in an effort to appear in control (Dekker & Schaufeli, 1995). The model of Jordan et al, (2002) focused on antecedents of behaviours emerging from job insecurity and determined that individuals with high emotional intelligence were able to assess the emotions they were feeling and prioritise the information before adopting multiple perspectives to determine if their feelings were reasonable (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). These individuals were more able to control their reactions and often increased their affective commitment to the organisation through enthusiasm.

Reactions that take place to deal with change indicate the potential of an employee's emotional intelligence in predicting behaviour (Jordan, 2003). Emotional intelligence predicts the ability to endure job insecurity and periods of short-term unemployment due to higher organisational commitment based on the emotional resilience of the individual (Ashkanasy & Jordan, 1997). Central to the proposition of the model of Jordan et al. (2002) is that employees with high emotional intelligence are better equipped than employees with low emotional intelligence to deal with affective and behavioural implications of job insecurity based on dispositional variables, reflecting the view of House, Shane and Harold (1996).

The first emotional reaction to job insecurity in the model of Jordan et al. (2002) is lowered **affective commitment**. Affective commitment is defined as the employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organisation (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Jaros et al. (1993) concluded that affective commitment can also be defined as the degree to which the individual is psychologically attached to an organisation through feelings such as loyalty, affection, warmth, belonging and pleasure. It is characterised by a strong belief in and acceptance of the organisation's goals and values; a willingness to exert considerable effort on its behalf; and a strong desire to maintain membership of it. According to Bragg, (2002), employee commitment is dependent on fairness, trust, and concern for employees. To build commitment employers should create an environment of fairness, trust, care and concern by being consistent in actions showing concern, trust and fairness. Meyer, Paunonen, Gellatly, Goffin and Jackson (1989) found a positive correlation between affective commitment and job performance, while

Dekker and Schaufeli (1995) also perceived that job insecurity causes employees to be less inclined to remain with the organisation.

Employee engagement leads to employee commitment and research by Robinson, Perryman and Hayday (2004) revealed that engaged employees display the following behavioural patterns: belief in the organisation; desire to work towards making things better; understanding the business context and the bigger picture; respectful of and helpful towards colleagues; willingness to go the extra mile; and keeping abreast with developments. Employees with strong affective commitment choose to maintain employment with the organisation as it contributes considerably to concern for quality, commitment and eagerness to share knowledge (Randall, Fedor & Longenecker, 1990).

Jordan et al. (2002) propose in their model that emotional intelligence acts as moderator to the effect of job insecurity on affective organisational commitment; and that employees with low emotional intelligence will respond with lower affective organisational commitment when faced with perceptions of job insecurity, thus leading to negative coping behaviour. Less than half the employees in today's workforce feel committed to their employer (Bragg, 2002), therefore there is a need for managers to understand the concept of commitment – how to apply it, and to recognise which behaviours are displayed as a result of employees' commitment to the organisation.

The second emotional reaction to job insecurity in the model of Jordan et al. (2002) is **job-related tension**. Job-related tension was conceptualised from literature as an energy-demanding negative emotional experience which usually follows a stimulus and is consciously or unconsciously interpreted as a threat, leading to a response aimed at ending this experience (Van Graan, 1981). Job-related tension can also be defined as the harmful physical and emotional responses that occur when the requirements of the job do not match the capabilities, resources, or needs of the worker (United States National Institute of Occupational Safety and Health, Cincinnati, 1999). The European Commission's: Directorate-General for Employment and Social Affairs add that job-related tension is the emotional, cognitive, behavioural and physiological

reaction to aversive and noxious aspects of work, work environments and work organisations. Job insecurity is experienced as a threat by the individual as there is uncertainty whether the individual will retain the job (Barling & Kelloway, 1996; De Witte, 1999); and is seen to affect the individual's economic, personal or social resources (Hobfoll & Shirom, 2001) which may result in severe stress.

Jordan et al. (2002) concede that emotional intelligence will moderate the effect of perceptions of job insecurity on job-related tension, and that employees with low emotional intelligence will respond to job insecurity with higher dysfunctional job-related tension. This concept is supported by Nikolau and Tsaoussis (2002) who established a negative correlation between emotional intelligence and job-related tension.

Increased perception of job insecurity contributes to tension which is the initial emotional reaction that a person first conceives and which immediately begins to affect one's physical well-being (Hill, 2004). Tension, as a result of job insecurity, is often expressed by finding fault with others, a tendency to spend beyond one's income, neglecting one's personal appearance, scowling, frowning, intemperance in using alcohol and drugs, nervousness, lack of poise, self-consciousness and lack of self-reliance (Hill, 2004). Similarly, Hill (2004) proposes in accordance with the model of Jordan et al. (2002) that the emotionally intelligent employee will take suitable action to temper destructive effects associated with the perception of job insecurity. In the model of Jordan et al. (2002), the negative emotional reactions that surface from the perception of job insecurity to job-related tension and affective organisational commitment are conceptualised as negative coping behaviour.

Coping behaviour is defined as a response in reducing job-related tension by relieving the amount of stress experienced. The two types of coping strategy (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984) are: problem-focused coping, which focuses on the source of the job-related tension; and emotion-focused coping which seeks to reduce the emotional effects of stress. Problem-focused coping strategies can be either outer-directed (aimed at changing situations or behaviours of others), or inner-directed (efforts to change attitudes and needs and develop new skills and responses).

Emotion-focused coping aims to manage emotional distress and includes meditation and seeking support. These strategies can have either positive or negative effects on employees (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984).

Research also shows a third type of coping, namely avoidance coping. This involves strategies such as behavioural disengagement (withdrawal from a situation) and mental disengagement (using alternative strategies such as sleeping or day dreaming) to deal with stressful events. Avoidant coping strategies appear to be a psychological risk factor or marker for adverse responses to stressful life events (Holhan & Moos as cited in MacArthur & MacArthur, 1998).

Studies suggest that 40% to 60% of all employees rate their jobs as being stressful or extremely stressful with impact on family balance and health (Ribelin, 2003; Sheridan & Vrendenburgh, 1978). Stressed workers smoke more, eat unhealthily, have more problems with alcohol and drugs, have more family problems, are less motivated on the job, have more trouble with co-workers, and have more physical illness (Cahill et al., 1995). Furthermore, employees with low emotional intelligence often exhibit emotional dissonance which refers to displaying emotions (usually positive) that are not genuinely felt (neutral or negative) and seen as stressful (e.g. smiling under difficult situations). Frequent experience of emotional dissonance leads to a loss of the capability to regulate one's own emotions, which means the loss of a specific internal resource that could lead to negative coping behaviour (Goleman, 2008).

Goleman (1995) found that emotional intelligence was strongly correlated with both, physical and psychological health. People with high control of emotions will not resort to unhealthy solutions when facing difficulties, but will proactively seek out techniques to cope with distressed situations that might cause health problems such as job insecurity (Nikolaou & Tsaoussis, 2002). Similarly, a study by Duxbury (2004) identified the moderating role of emotional intelligence in the relationship between stress and a number of measures of psychological health, such as depression and hopelessness. These studies indicate that a negative correlation exists between stress, ill health and emotional intelligence levels. The study assumes that people scoring high in emotional intelligence are expected to cope effectively with

environmental demands and pressures, and in particular occupational stress (Nikolaou & Tsaoussis, 2002). This confirms a link between emotional intelligence and job-related tension.

Jordan et al. (2002) are of the opinion that employees with low emotional intelligence are ill-equipped to deal with the affective emotional consequences of job insecurity and often avoid the issue, failing to understand the consequences of their behaviour. Emotional intelligence is therefore proposed by Jordan et al. (2002) as a moderator of affective organisational commitment, job-related tension and negative coping behaviour.

Based on the assumptions of the model proposed by Jordan et al. (2002), this research will investigate whether emotional intelligence acts to moderate the negative emotional responses towards affective organisational commitment and job-related tension with resulting coping behaviour in the face of job insecurity.

The following hypotheses are formulated:

H1: Emotional intelligence moderates the relationship between job insecurity and affective organisational commitment

H2: Emotional intelligence moderates the relationship between job insecurity and job-related tension

H3: Emotional intelligence moderates the relationship between affective organisational commitment and negative coping behaviour

H4: Emotional intelligence moderates the relationship between job-related tension and negative coping behaviour.

METHOD

Research design

A quantitative approach was employed for this study utilising a survey design with a non-experimental correlation research design. The design assessed relationships between the various constructs without intervention and is suitable to be used in revealing relationships among variables within a population, as well as appropriate for descriptive and predictive research purposes (Shaugnessy & Zechmeister, 1997). Managers' responses were measured against all five constructs and relationships between different measurements determined.

Participants

The study population can be described as a systematic sample of managers at a national soft drink organisation in South Africa ($n = 296$). The participants consisted of managers from all levels according to the Hay-guide job-grading system, ranging from semi-skilled to professional. All the managers have a level of literacy in English adequate enough for reliable completion of the questionnaires. Out of 400 potential respondents, 296 completed questionnaires, resulting in a response rate of 74%. The biographical characteristics of the study population are detailed in Table 1.

Table 1

Characteristics of the Participants (n = 296)

Item	Category	Frequency	Percentage
Gender	Male	220	74.3
	Female	76	25.7
	Total	296	100
Race	White	127	43.0
	African	85	28.7

	Coloured	17	5.7
	Indian	67	22.6
	Total	296	100
Language	Afrikaans	46	15.5
	English	183	61.8
	Sepedi	6	2.0
	Sesotho	7	2.4
	Setswana	12	4.1
	IsiSwati	5	1.7
	Tshivenda	6	2.0
	IsiXhosa	5	1.7
	IsiZulu	23	7.8
	IsiTsonga	2	0.7
	Other	1	0.3
	Total	296	100
Age	25 years and younger	6	2.0
	26 – 35 years	126	42.6
	36 – 45 years	98	33.1
	46 years and older	43	14.5
	Missing	23	7.8
	Total	296	100
Education Level	Grade 12 (Std 10)	47	15.9
	Technical College Diploma	28	9.5
	Technical Diploma	67	22.6
	University Degree	84	28.4
	Postgraduate Degree	70	23.6
	Total	296	100
Work experience	1 – 3 years	11	3.7

	3 – 5 years	27	9.1
	5 – 10 years	67	22.6
	10 – 15 years	70	23.7
	15 – 20 years	49	16.6
	More than 20 years	72	24.3
	Total	296	100
Job grade	General Management	6	2.0
	Senior Management	54	18.2
	Middle Management	127	43.0
	Junior Management	51	17.2
	Supervisory Management	58	19.6
	Total	296	100
Marital Status	Single	56	18.9
	Single parent	9	3.0
	Married/ living with a partner, without children	29	9.8
	Married/ living with a partner, with children	185	62.5
	Divorced	12	4.1
	Divorced, single parent	3	1.0
	Widow/ widower	2	0.7
	Total	296	100

The sample consisted mainly of male participants (74.3%) with the majority being white (43%), English speaking (61.8%) managers. Furthermore, the majority of the participants (42.6%) fell within the age group ranging between 26 – 35 years old with a university degree (28.4%). Most managers were on a middle management job level (43%) with more than 20 years work

experience (24.3%). Lastly, the majority of participants were married/living with a partner with children (62.5%).

Procedure

Permission was obtained from the HR Director at a national beverage organisation to conduct the study using all managers within the organisation as a sample. Once the study was approved, a letter was sent out to the managers via e-mail, informing them of the nature of the research and that permission had been granted by the HR Director for their participation in the study. Instructions on how to complete the questionnaire were provided and assurance of anonymity emphasised. A link attached to the letter gave electronic access to the questionnaire. Participants were requested to complete and submit the questionnaire electronically on receipt of the questionnaire, within a two-week period. Several extensions were, however, granted. Participants were also encouraged to contact either the researcher or research leader telephonically or via e-mail with any queries. Participation of managers was entirely voluntary. Where possible, groups of managers were assembled and given an explanatory talk by the researcher before the questionnaire was distributed.

Measuring instruments

Five measuring instruments were used, namely the Emotional Intelligence Scale (EIS) of Schutte et al. (1998); The Job Insecurity Questionnaire (JIQ) of De Witte (2000); The Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) of Meyer and Allen (1997); The COPE Questionnaire (COPE) of Carver, Scheier and Weintraub (1989); and the Experience of Work and Life Circumstances Questionnaire (WLQ) of Van Zyl and Van der Walt (1991).

The Emotional Intelligence Scale (EIS) (Schutte et al., 1998) was used to measure emotional intelligence and consisted of 33 items that are based on the conceptual model of emotional intelligence of Salovey and Mayer (1990). It assesses the extent to which respondents characteristically identify, understand, harness and regulate emotions in themselves and others.

The instrument has three categories of which: thirteen items measure appraisals and expression of emotion; ten measure regulation of emotion; and another ten measure utilisation of emotion. The items are arranged along a 5-point Likert-type scale and respondents rate themselves accordingly on each statement encompassing 'strongly disagree', 'disagree', 'undecided', 'agree', or 'strongly agree'. Schutte et al. (1998) reported an adequate internal consistency reliability ($r = 0.87$ to 0.90) and acceptable two week test-retest reliability ($r = 0.78$).

The Job Insecurity Questionnaire (JIQ) (De Witte, 2000) was used to measure the perceived job insecurity of participants. The items in the 11-item questionnaire measure both cognitive (the possibility of becoming unemployed) and affective (emotional reaction to it) dimensions of job insecurity arranged along a 5-point Likert-type scale with 1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=neither agree nor disagree, 4=agree and 5=strongly agree. The items of the JIQ measuring job insecurity are reported to have a Cronbach alpha coefficient of 0.92 (De Witte, 2000). Both cognitive and emotional dimensions of the job insecurity questionnaire have been shown to be highly reliable, with the six items measuring cognitive job insecurity displaying a Cronbach alpha coefficient of 0.90; and the five items of affective job insecurity having a Cronbach alpha coefficient of 0.85 (De Witte, 2000).

The Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) (Meyer, Allen & Smith, 1993) was used to measure the affective organisational commitment of participants. The questionnaire is based on the premises that organisational commitment is a multidimensional construct comprising three components: affective, continuance and normative commitment. It consists of 18 items and is rated using a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1=strongly disagree, 2=moderately disagree, 3=slightly disagree, 4=neither agree nor disagree, 5=slightly agree, 6=moderately agree and 7=strongly agree.

Only the affective sub-scale of the OCQ measuring affective organisational commitment was utilised in this research study. Allen and Meyer (1990) reported Cronbach alpha coefficients of 0.87 for affective commitment; whereas Dunham, Grube, and Castaneda (1994) found Cronbach

alpha coefficients ranging from 0.74 to 0.87. Cohen (1996) found Cronbach alpha coefficients of 0.79 for the affective organisational commitment subscale.

The COPE Questionnaire (COPE) (Carver et al., 1989) was used to measure the various ways in which people cope with stress. This 53-item questionnaire comprises 14 discreet scales of coping strategies which included five subscales measuring different aspects of problem-focused coping; five sub-scales measuring different aspects of emotion-focused coping; and four subscales measuring avoidance coping. Each subscale contains four items and responses are made using a 4-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1= I usually don't do this at all to 4= I usually do this a lot. Carver et al. (1989) obtained Cronbach alpha coefficients of between 0.45 and 0.92; and test-retest reliability applied after two weeks found that reliability varies from 0.46 to 0.86 and from 0.42 to 0.89.

Only the summary scales of the measure were used in this research. Problem-focused coping consists of active coping, planning, suppression of competing activities, restraint coping and seeking social support for instrumental reasons. Emotion-focused coping consists of seeking social support for emotional reasons, positive reinterpretation and growth, acceptance, turning to religion, focus on and venting of emotions. Lastly, avoidance coping consists of denial, behavioural disengagement, mental disengagement and alcohol-drug disengagement.

The Experience of Work and Life Circumstance Questionnaire (WLQ) (Van Zyl & Van der Walt, 1991) was used to measure job-related tension. The questionnaire has two subscales that respectively measure stress levels experienced and the nature and important causes of stress of employees, with a minimum level of education equal to grade 10.

The evaluation is based on the answers to 40 questions. A 5-point Likert-type scale is used to indicate how often certain feelings of stress (for example, depression, anxiety and frustration) occur. The reliability coefficients of Kuder-Richardson 8 range from 0.83 to 0.92. The test-retest reliability coefficients vary from 0.62 to 0.80 (Van Zyl & Van der Walt, 1991).

Statistical Analysis

The statistical analysis was carried out with the SPSS programme (2007). Inter-item correlation coefficients and Cronbach's alpha coefficients were determined to assess the reliability and validity of all the measuring instruments (Trochim & Donnelly, 2008). Exploratory factor analysis was carried out to determine the construct validity of the measuring instruments. Descriptive statistics in terms of means, standard deviations, skewness and kurtosis were used to analyse the data. Pearson product correlation coefficients were used to specify the relationships between the variables and the practical significance of correlation coefficients were indicated (Trochim & Donnelly, 2008). To investigate the relative impact of predictors on outcomes and to test for moderation, multiple regression analysis was used (Trochim & Donnelly, 2008).

RESULTS

Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics, inter-item correlation coefficients and Cronbach alpha coefficients of the Emotional Intelligence Scale (EIS); Job Insecurity Questionnaire (JIQ); Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ); the Experience of Work and Life Circumstances Questionnaire (WLQ); and the COPE Questionnaire (COPE) ($n = 296$) are reported in Table 2.

Table 2

Descriptive statistics, inter-item correlations and Cronbach alpha coefficients of the measuring instruments

Test and subscales	N	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis	Inter-item R	Cronbach alpha
Emotional Intelligence	296	4.07	0.34	0.96	-0.53	0.18	0.87
Job Insecurity	296	1.98	0.69	0.55	0.28	0.41	0.87
Affective Org Commitment	296	5.68	0.96	-0.67	0.72	0.35	0.77
Job-related Tension	296	1.75	0.54	1.45	2.41	0.39	0.96
Problem-focused Coping	296	3.12	0.36	-0.28	-0.29	0.20	0.82
Emotion-focused Coping	296	2.77	0.42	-0.45	0.65	0.17	0.81
Avoidance Coping	296	1.50	0.38	1.57	3.18	0.23	0.78

Skewness is the degree of deviation from symmetry; and kurtosis refers to how flat or peaked the distribution is (Struwig & Stead, 2001), which indicates whether the scores are normally distributed or if there is a tendency of bias (Aron & Aron, 1997). Skewness and kurtosis for the measuring instruments are acceptable ($-2 < x < 2$) (Tabachnick & Fidel, 2001), excluding the measurements for stress level and avoidance coping.

Mean scores is the central tendency in which all values are added and then divided by the number of values (Trochem & Donnelly, 2008), whereas standard deviation measures the deviation of each score from the mean and then averages the deviations (Struwig & Stead, 2001). The mean score and standard deviations of the scales used in this research compared well to other results in the South African context.

Reliability of the measuring instruments

The Cronbach alpha coefficients for all the measuring instruments were above the norm of 0.70 as set by Nunnally and Bernstein (1994); which is regarded as acceptable for research purposes. Furthermore, all the inter-item correlations are acceptable compared to the guideline of $0.15 < r < 0.50$ set by Clark and Watson (1995). Based on the scores of this particular research population, the findings indicate that all measures used in this study are reliable.

The reliability coefficients attained in this study correspond relatively well with those found in literature. The Cronbach alpha coefficient of 0.87 of the EIS measuring emotional intelligence is similar to those found by other research studies in South Africa. Leepile (2006) reported a Cronbach alpha coefficient of 0.90, whereas a Cronbach alpha coefficient of 0.92 was found by Van Zyl (2009).

De Witte (2000) reported a Cronbach alpha coefficient of 0.92 for the JIQ which is slightly higher than the alpha coefficient 0.87 that was attained for the purpose of this study, however, it compared relatively favourably. Human (2002) obtained a Cronbach alpha coefficient of 0.83 in her study, whereas Van Greunen (2004) attained a Cronbach alpha coefficient of 0.84.

The affective sub-scale of the OCQ measuring affective organisational commitment obtained a reliability score of 0.77. This is very much in line with the Cronbach alpha coefficient obtained by Selepe (2004). In addition, Rani (2006) reported a Cronbach alpha coefficient of 0.83, whereas Rannona (2003) obtained a reliability score of 0.70.

The Cronbach alpha coefficient of the WLQ measuring the stress levels in managers obtained a reliability score of 0.96, similar to that reported by van Zyl (2009), and Oosthuizen (2004) who obtained a score of 0.92.

Lastly, the three subscales on the COPE questionnaire which were used to measure the various ways in which managers cope, obtained the following reliability scores for each subscale:

problem-focused coping obtained a reliability score of 0.82; emotion-focused coping obtained a reliability score of 0.81; and avoidance coping obtained a reliability score of 0.78. Carver et al. (1989) reported Cronbach alpha coefficients of between 0.45 to 0.92.

Validity of the measuring instruments

Factor analysis was carried out on the scores of each instrument. Validity of the scales was determined by their respective factor structures which confirmed the inter-item correlations. With all the scales a confirmatory principal component factor analysis was done, followed by an exploratory principal component factor analysis with Varimax rotation. The results obtained compared well with results from other studies and it was concluded that the measuring instruments were valid.

Correlations between constructs

In Table 3 the correlations between emotional intelligence, job insecurity, affective organisational commitment, job-related tension and coping behaviour scores for the research group are displayed. Practical significance was in accordance with criteria of Cohen (1988), with the practical significance of correlation coefficients set between variables at $r \geq 0.10$ (small effect), $r \geq 0.30$ (medium effect) and $r \geq 0.50$ (large effect).

Table 3

Correlations between measurements of emotional intelligence, job insecurity, affective organisational commitment, job-related tension level and coping behaviour (n = 296)

Item	Emotional Intelligence	Job Insecurity	Affective Org Commitment	Job-related Tension	Problem Focused Coping	Emotion Focused Coping	Avoidance
1. Emotional Intelligence	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
2. Job Insecurity	-0.31**+	-	-	-	-	-	-
3. Affective Organisational Commitment	0.32**+	-0.38**+	-	-	-	-	-
4. Job-related Tension	-0.27**	0.51***+	-0.41**+	-	-	-	-
5. Problem-focused Coping	0.30**+	-0.07	0.23**	-0.01	-	-	-
6. Emotion-focused Coping	0.26**	0.01	0.03	0.18**	0.50***+	-	-
7. Avoidance	-0.16**	0.23**	-0.22**	0.59***+	-0.02	0.30**+	-

**Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level

+ Correlation is practically significant $r \geq 0.30$ (medium effect)

++ Correlation is practically significant $r \geq 0.50$ (large effect)

As can be seen from Table 3, emotional intelligence is statistically and practically significantly related (with a medium effect) to job insecurity (negative relationship) and affective organisational commitment (positive relationship). This indicates higher emotional intelligence could result in lowered perceptions of job insecurity and increased affective organisational commitment. This is in accordance with the model of Jordan et al. (2002) who concluded that in response to job insecurity low emotional intelligent employees will experience higher affective organisational commitment than those exhibiting high emotional intelligence.

Emotional intelligence is only statistically significant and not practically significant when related to job-related tension, problem-focused coping, emotion-focused coping as well as avoidance coping.

Job insecurity has a statistically and practically significant relationship (with a medium effect) with affective organisational commitment (negative relationship); and a statistically and practically significant (with a large effect) relationship with job-related tension (positive relationship). This implies that an increase in perception of job insecurity results in a decrease in one's affective organisational commitment and an increase in job-related tension. The relationship obtained between job insecurity and affective organisational commitment is in line

with the findings of Van Zyl (2009) who reported a negative correlation between job insecurity and affective organisational commitment.

In addition, this correlation supports the assumption of Jordan et al. (2002) that perceived job insecurity can lead to the emotional reactions of lower affective organisational commitment and increased job-related tension. Job insecurity is only statistically significant and not practically significant when related to avoidance coping.

A statistically significant and practically significant relationship (with medium effect) is indicated between affective organisational commitment and job-related tension (negative relationship) in Table 3. This entails that an increase in one's affective organisational commitment results in a decrease in job-related tension. In addition, affective organisational commitment is statistically significant and not practically significant when related to problem-focused coping as well as avoidance coping.

Job-related tension has a statistically significant and practically significant correlation (with a large effect) with avoidance coping (positive relationship). This implies that rising job-related tension leads to increased negative coping behaviour (avoidance coping). This correlation is therefore supported by the model of Jordan et al. (2002) that proposes that increased job-related tension negatively influences coping behaviour. In addition, Jordan et al. (2002) stated that employees with low emotional intelligence experiencing high job-related tension will be more likely to engage in negative coping behaviour. Furthermore, job-related tension is only statistically significantly related to emotion-focused coping.

The results also reveal a statistically and practically significant relationship (with a medium effect) between problem-focused coping and emotion-focused coping (positive relationship). This implies that an increase in problem-focused coping results in an increase in emotion-focused coping. Avoidance coping is only statistically significant and not practically significant to emotion-focused coping.

Regression analyses

Multiple regression analyses were performed to determine the possible moderating effect of emotional intelligence as proposed by Jordan et al. (2002) on the relationship between job insecurity and affective organisational commitment; job insecurity and job-related tension; coping behaviour and affective organisational commitment; and coping behaviour and job-related tension. In addition, multiple regression analysis with the linear regression method was carried out to determine the percentage variance in the dependent variable that is predicted by the independent variable. The analysis was conducted according to the following models: affective organisational commitment and job-related tension as dependant variables with job insecurity as an independent variable; problem-focused coping and avoidance coping (negative coping) as dependent variables and affective organisational commitment as an independent variable; and lastly emotion-focused coping and avoidance coping (negative coping) as dependent variables and job-related tension as an independent variable. It is important to note that the moderating effect of emotional intelligence on all the dependent variables mentioned above was utilised for the purpose of this study as can be observed in Tables 4A, 4B and 4C.

Table 4A

Multiple regression analysis of job insecurity on affective organisational commitment and job-related tension with emotional intelligence as moderator

Model	Dependent Variable	Independent Variable	Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	T	P	F	R	R ²	ΔR^2
			B	SE	BETA						
1	Affective Org commitment							50.14*	0.38	0.15	0.15*
		(Constant)	5.68	0.05		110.22	0.00				
		JI	-0.53	0.08	-0.38	-7.08	0.00*				
2	Affective Org commitment							34.43*	0.44	0.19	0.04*
		(Constant)	3.78	0.48		7.96	0.00				
		JI	-0.43	0.08	-0.31	-5.64	0.00*				
	EI	0.63	0.16	0.22	4.02	0.00*					
3	Affective Org commitment							22.90*	0.44	0.19	0.00
		(Constant)	3.79	0.48		7.95	0.00				
		JI	-0.60	0.64	-0.43	-0.94	0.35				
		EI	0.63	0.16	0.22	4.01	0.00*				
	JI * EI	0.06	0.21	0.12	0.26	0.79					
1	Job-Related Tension							103.42*	0.51	0.26	0.26*
		(Constant)	1.75	0.03		64.86	0.00				
		JI	0.40	0.04	0.51	10.17	0.00*				
2	Job-Related Tension							55.33*	0.52	0.27	0.01**
		(Constant)	2.35	0.25		9.27	0.00				
		JI	0.37	0.04	0.47	8.99	0.00*				
	EI	-0.20	0.08	-0.12	-2.37	0.02**					
3	Job-Related Tension							36.78*	0.52	0.27	0.00
		(Constant)	2.35	0.25		9.26	0.00				
		JI	0.29	0.34	0.37	0.84	0.40				
		EI	-0.20	0.08	-0.12	-2.36	0.02**				
	JI * EI	0.03	0.11	0.10	0.23	0.82					

* Statistically significant $p < 0,01$

**Statistically significant $p < 0,05$

In Table 4A a regression analysis has been conducted to determine whether job insecurity predicts affective organisational commitment and job-related tension with emotional intelligence as the moderator. In the first instance (with job insecurity as independent variable and affective organisational commitment as dependent variable), job insecurity was entered in the first step. This explained 15% of the variance and was statistically significant [$\Delta R^2 = 0.15$, $F(1, 294) = 50.14$, $p = 0.00$].

In step 2 emotional intelligence was added, which explained an additional 4% of the variance [$\Delta R^2 = 0.04$, $F(2, 293) = 34.43$, $p = 0.00$]. In the third step the interaction term between job insecurity and emotional intelligence was entered. The interaction term did not explain any additional variance and was not significant [$\Delta R^2 = 0.00$, $F(3, 292) = 22.90$, $p = 0.79$].

This implies that job insecurity and emotional intelligence both had a main effect on affective organisational commitment, but emotional intelligence does not moderate the relationship between job insecurity and affective organisational commitment.

Furthermore, this does not support the proposed model of Jordan et al. (2002) which states that employees with high emotional intelligence will display higher affective organisational commitment in response to job insecurity.

In the second instance (with job insecurity as independent variable and job-related tension as dependent variable), job insecurity was entered in the first step. This explained 26% of the variance and was statistically significant [$\Delta R^2 = 0.26$, $F(1, 294) = 103.42$, $p = 0.00$].

In step 2 emotional intelligence was added which explained an additional 1% of the variance and was also statistically significant [$\Delta R^2 = 0.01$, $F(2, 293) = 55.33$, $p = 0.02$]. In the third step, however, the interaction term between job insecurity and emotional intelligence was entered which did not explain any additional variance and was not statistically significant [$\Delta R^2 = 0.00$, $F(3, 292) = 36.78$, $p = 0.82$]. This was not in support of the hypothesis (H2).

This implies that both job insecurity and emotional intelligence had a main effect on job-related tension, however, emotional intelligence does not moderate the relationship between job insecurity and job-related tension.

It can be concluded that emotional intelligence does not have a moderating effect on affective organisational commitment nor job-related tension which is in contrast to the model of Jordon et al. (2002) which proposes that emotional intelligence does in fact have a moderating effect with perceptions of job insecurity on job-related tension.

Table 4B

Multiple regression analysis of affective organisational commitment on problem-focused coping and avoidance coping with emotional intelligence as moderator

	Dependent Variable	Independent Variable	Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	<i>T</i>	<i>P</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>R</i>	<i>R</i> ²	ΔR^2
			B	SE	BETA						
Problem focused coping											
1								15.91*	0.23	0.05	0.05*
		(Constant)	3.12	0.02		152.26	0.00				
		AOC	0.01	0.02	0.23	3.99	0.00*				
2								17.50*	0.33	0.11	0.06*
		(Constant)	2.32	0.19		12.30	0.00				
		AOC	0.06	0.02	0.15	2.52	0.01*				
		EI	0.27	0.06	0.25	4.26	0.00*				
3								11.70*	0.33	0.11	0.00
		(Constant)	2.31	0.19		12.21	0.00				
		AOC	0.13	0.18	0.35	0.74	0.46				
		EI	0.27	0.06	0.25	4.28	0.00*				
		AOC * EI	-0.03	0.06	-0.21	-0.43	0.67				
Avoidance coping											
1								15.18*	0.22	0.05	0.05*
		(Constant)	1.50	0.02		69.65	0.00				
		AOC	-0.09	0.02	-0.22	-3.90	0.00*				
2								8.98*	0.24	0.06	0.01
		(Constant)	1.84	0.20		9.00	0.00				
		AOC	-0.08	0.02	-0.19	-3.18	0.02*				
		EI	-0.11	0.07	-0.10	-1.64	0.10				
3								6.66*	0.25	0.06	0.00
		(Constant)	1.86	0.20		9.10	0.00				
		AOC	-0.34	0.19	-0.86	-1.78	0.08				
		EI	-0.12	0.07	-0.11	-1.78	0.08				
		AOC * EI	0.09	0.07	0.68	1.40	0.16				

* Statistically significant $p < 0,01$

**Statistically significant $p < 0,05$

In Table 4B a regression analysis has been conducted to determine whether affective organisational commitment predicts problem-focused coping and avoidance-coping with emotional intelligence as moderator. In the first instance (with affective organisational commitment as independent variable and problem-focused coping as dependent variable), affective organisational commitment was entered in the first step. This explained 5% of the variance and was statistically significant [$\Delta R^2 = 0.05$, $F(1.294) = 15.91$, $p = 0.00$].

In step 2 emotional intelligence was added, which explained an additional 6% of the variance [$\Delta R^2 = 0.06$, $F(2.293) = 17.50$, $p = 0.00$]. In the third step the interaction term between affective organisational commitment and emotional intelligence was entered. The interaction term did not explain any additional variance and was not significant [$\Delta R^2 = 0.00$, $F(3.292) = 11.70$, $p = 0.67$].

This implies that affective organisational commitment and emotional intelligence both had a main effect on problem-focused coping, but emotional intelligence does not moderate the relationship between affective organisational commitment and problem-focused coping which is in contrast to that proposed by Jordan et al. (2002). This too is not in acceptance of the hypothesis (H3).

In the second instance (with affective organisational commitment as independent variable and avoidance coping as dependent variable), affective organisational commitment was entered in the first step. This explained 5% of the variance and was statistically significant [$\Delta R^2 = 0.05$, $F(1.294) = 15.18$, $p = 0.00$].

In step 2 emotional intelligence was added, which explained an additional 1% of the variance but had no significance value [$\Delta R^2 = 0.01$, $F(2.293) = 8.98$, $p = 0.10$]. In the third step the interaction term between affective organisational commitment and emotional intelligence was entered which did not explain any additional variance and was not significant [$\Delta R^2 = 0.00$, $F(3.292) = 6.66$, $p = 0.16$].

This implies that only affective organisational commitment had a main effect on avoidance coping and emotional intelligence does not moderate the relationship between affective organisational commitment and avoidance coping.

In this study we can conclude that emotional intelligence does not moderate the relationship between affective organisational commitment and problem-focused coping nor does it moderate the relationship between affective organisation commitment and avoidance coping.

Table 4C

Multiple Regression Analysis of Job-related Tension on Emotion-focused Coping and Avoidance Coping with Emotional Intelligence as moderator

Model	Dependent Variable	Independent Variable	Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	T	P	F	R	R ²	ΔR^2
			B	SE							
Emotion focused coping											
1		(Constant)	2.77	0.02		116.19	0.00	9.52*	0.18	0.03	0.03**
		JRT	0.14	0.04	0.18	3.09	0.02**				
2		(Constant)	1.53	0.21		7.25	0.00	22.95*	0.37	0.14	0.11*
		JRT	0.21	0.04	0.27	4.75	0.00*				
		EI	0.42	0.07	0.34	5.94	0.00*				
3		(Constant)	1.51	0.21		7.15	0.00	15.49*	0.37	0.14	0.00
		JRT	-0.09	0.37	-0.11	-0.23	0.82				
		EI	0.42	0.07	0.34	5.99	0.00*				
		JRT * EI	0.10	0.13	0.38	0.79	0.43				
Avoidance coping											
1		(Constant)	1.50	0.02		83.76	0.00	153.69*	0.59	0.34	0.34*
		JRT	0.41	0.03	0.59	12.40	0.00*				
2		(Constant)	1.50	0.17		8.96	0.00	76.58*	0.59	0.34	0.00
		JRT	0.41	0.04	0.59	11.91	0.00*				
		EI	2.68	0.06	0.00	0.00	1.00				
3		(Constant)	1.51	0.17		8.99	0.00	51.20*	0.59	0.35	0.01
		JRT	0.65	0.30	0.92	2.18	0.03*				
		EI	-0.01	0.06	-0.01	-0.10	0.93				
		JRT * EI	-0.08	0.10	-0.34	-0.80	0.43				

* Statistically significant $p < 0,01$

**Statistically significant $p < 0,05$

In Table 4C a regression analysis was conducted to determine whether job-related tension predicts emotion-focused coping and avoidance coping with emotional intelligence as moderator. In the first instance (with job-related tension as independent variable and emotion-focused coping as dependent variable), job-related tension was entered in the first step. This explained 3% of the variance and was statistically significant [$\Delta R^2 = 0.03$, $F(1, 294) = 9.52$, $p = 0.02$].

In step 2 emotional intelligence was added, which explained an additional 11% of the variance [$\Delta R^2 = 0.11$, $F(2, 293) = 22.95$, $p = 0.00$]. In the third step the interaction term between job-related tension and emotional intelligence was entered. The interaction term did not explain any additional variance and was not significant [$\Delta R^2 = 0.00$, $F(3, 292) = 15.49$, $p = 0.43$].

This implies that job-related tension and emotional intelligence both had a main effect on emotion-focused coping, but emotional intelligence does not moderate the relationship between job-related tension and emotion-focused coping.

This is not in support of the model of Jordan et al. (2002) which contends that employees with high emotional intelligence could use emotional assimilation to prioritise information and understand emotions, enabling them to evaluate and manage their emotions more effectively (Jordan et al., 2002). This is also not in acceptance of the hypothesis (H4).

In the second instance (with job-related tension as independent variable and avoidance coping as dependent variable), job-related tension was entered in the first step. This explained 34% of the variance and was statistically significant [$\Delta R^2 = 0.34$, $F(1, 294) = 153.69$, $p = 0.00$].

In step 2 emotional intelligence was added which explained no additional variance and had no significant value [$\Delta R^2 = 0.00$, $F(2, 293) = 76.58$, $p = 1.00$]. In the third step the interaction term between job-related tension and emotional intelligence was entered which did not explain any additional variance and was not significant [$\Delta R^2 = 0.01$, $F(3, 292) = 51.20$, $p = 0.43$].

This implies that only job-related tension had a main effect on avoidance coping and emotional intelligence does not moderate the relationship between job-related tension and avoidance coping.

In this instance it can be concluded that emotional intelligence does not have an effect on the relationship between emotion-focused coping and job-related tension nor on the relationship between avoidance coping (negative coping) and job-related tension.

No interaction terms were significant, therefore, no significant correlation was observed between the pairs of independent variables in either of the above models.

DISCUSSION

In this study the relationship between perceived job insecurity and negative coping behaviour was explored, with the effect of emotional intelligence as possible moderator. The following measuring instruments were utilised for the study: Emotional Intelligence Scale (EIS); the Job Insecurity Questionnaire (JIQ); the Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ); the COPE Questionnaire (COPE) and the Experience of Work and Life Circumstances Questionnaire. These instruments determined descriptive statistics, reliability and validity of scales, correlations between the constructs, and moderating effects. The overall finding of this investigation was that the model of Jordan et al. (2002) could not be supported and that emotional intelligence as dispositional variable did not moderate any relationship between constructs.

The Cronbach alpha coefficients for all the measuring instruments were above the norm of 0.70 as set by Nunnally and Bernstein (1994) indicating that the scales used in this study were reliable. The reliability indices for the measuring instruments used in this study were found to compare well with those of other studies using the same scales.

Once the validity and reliability of the measuring instruments for this study were confirmed, the original aim of investigating the proposed model of Jordon et al. (2002) was put into operation. Several strong practically significant relationships were found between emotional intelligence and job insecurity, affective organisational commitment and problem-focused coping; between job insecurity, affective organisational commitment and job-related tension; between job-related

tension and affective organisational commitment and avoidance coping; and between problem-focused coping and emotion-focused coping.

In their model, Jordan et al. (2002) propose that perceptions of job insecurity will lead to lower affective organisational commitment and to increased job-related tension. Correlation coefficients of -0.38 and 0.51 (both practically significant) seem to support these assumptions.

Jordan et al. (2002) also propose that lowered levels of organisational commitment and higher levels of job-related tension will lead to negative coping behaviour. A correlation coefficient of -0.22 found between affective organisational commitment and avoidance coping seems to support the assumption of Jordan et al. (2002).

Emotional intelligence has a significantly negative correlation with job insecurity and a positive correlation with affective organisational commitment. This implies that emotionally intelligent employees will experience low job insecurity and are shielded against these perceptions. This is in accordance with the model of Jordan et al. (2002) who concluded that in response to job insecurity, employees with low emotional intelligence will experience higher affective organisational commitment than those exhibiting high emotional intelligence.

Emotional intelligence also correlates with job-related tension in this study which is a finding that is theoretically anticipated and in line with the assumptions of the model of Jordan et al. (2002).

Furthermore, emotional intelligence obtained significant positive correlations with problem-focused coping and emotion-focused coping, as would be theoretically anticipated.

To determine the possible moderating effect of emotional intelligence as proposed by Jordan et al. (2002), multiple regression analysis was performed. In understanding the moderating effect of emotional intelligence, the model of Jordan et al. (2002) was not supported and disregarded. It was found that emotional intelligence does not moderate the relationship between job insecurity

and affective organisational commitment which is not in support of the hypothesis (H1). It was also found that emotional intelligence does not moderate the relationship between affective organisational commitment and problem-focused coping which is not in support of the hypothesis (H3) nor the relationship between job-related tension and emotion-focused coping which is also not supported by the hypothesis (H4).

Furthermore, emotional intelligence did not moderate the relationship between job insecurity and job-related tension which is not in support of the hypothesis (H2). It was also found that emotional intelligence did not moderate the relationship of affective organisational commitment and job-related tension on avoidance coping.

Regardless of emotional intelligence not having any moderating effects amongst constructs, results indicated that emotional intelligence as well as other constructs do have an effect on one another. This includes job insecurity and emotional intelligence which both had a main effect on affective organisational commitment and in addition, both job insecurity and emotional intelligence had a main effect on job-related tension. Furthermore, affective organisational commitment and emotional intelligence both had a main effect on problem-focused coping. Affective organisational commitment also had a main effect on avoidance coping, and job-related tension and emotional intelligence both had a main effect on emotion-focused coping. Lastly, job-related tension had a main effect on avoidance coping.

Investigating the correlations between job insecurity and job-related tension, as well as job-related tension and avoidance coping, shows that both the relationships were of a large practical effect, which emphasises the strength of the relationship between the variables. The impact of emotional intelligence on the relationships was not strong enough to add to the already significant relationships. It could thus be concluded that job insecurity had such a big influence on job-related tension in this study, that emotional intelligence could not influence it further and the same applies for the relationship between job-related tension and avoidance coping.

RECOMMENDATIONS

In the light of the discussion, several recommendations could be made. Firstly, the relationship between job insecurity, job-related tension and avoidance coping needs to be explored, as this will help management to understand the reasons for negative coping behaviour. Extending the study population to involve managers in various dimensions of the workplace might eliminate a mutually accepted organisational culture which may have certain distinctive characteristics that could have influenced the results of this study. Future studies should also focus on longitudinal designs, making it possible to draw on causal inferences rather than reliance, as in this study, on self-report measures.

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CHAPTER 3

CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND LIMITATIONS

Chapter 3 provides a discussion on the results of the research where conclusions are drawn from the literature and the empirical results of the research. Limitations of the research will be discussed and recommendations for the organisation and future research will be provided.

3.1 CONCLUSIONS

Conclusions will be made with regards to the specific theoretical objectives as well as the results of this study.

3.1.1 Conclusions regarding the specific theoretical objectives

The following concepts were discussed by means of a literature study:

Emotional intelligence, managers, job insecurity, affective commitment, job-related tension and coping behaviour.

Emotional Intelligence was conceptualised from literature as the ability to recognise one's emotions, control them appropriately and utilise them in the best possible manner in every aspect of life (Goleman, 2002). Furthermore, emotional intelligence is defined by Mayer and Salovey (1997) as the ability to detect and to manage emotional cues and information. Emotional intelligence was reported by Goleman (2002) to be twice as important as technical skills and more important than IQ for success in jobs at all levels and has been claimed to validly predict a variety of successful behaviours at work, at a level exceeding that of intelligence. Emotional intelligence can serve as a predictor of an employee's attempts to successfully manage change and assist in predicting specific behaviours that surface during change (Jordan, 2003). Emotional intelligence can provide insight for managers in allotting tasks to staff during the implementation

of change or in identifying employees who require assistance to manage the change process (Jordan, 2003).

The conclusion can be made that emotional intelligence is found to be the single most important factor for superior performance from entry-level jobs to top executive positions (Watkin, 2000).

Managers are employees in the organisation whose jobs are characterised by high complexity, general management responsibilities and a high level of field knowledge and experience and to whom subordinates report (Hom & Griffeth, 1991).

Job Insecurity was conceptualised from literature as the expectations that one has about continuity in the job situation (Davey, Kinicki & Scheck, 1997). Job insecurity is defined as a discrepancy between the security employees would like their jobs to provide and the level they perceive to exist (Hartley, Jacobson, Klandermans & Van Vuuren, 1991). It is also the perception an individual has about a potential threat to his/her current job. Job insecurity is critical for influencing work-related outcomes and is an important determinant of employee health (Kuhnert, Sims & Lahey, 1989); for physical and psychological well-being of employees (Kuhnert & Palmer, 1991); for job satisfaction as well as employee retention (Ashford, Lee & Bobko, 1989; Burke, 1991). Job insecurity for the purpose of this research can therefore be viewed as a stressor with negative influences on the individual.

Affective commitment was conceptualised from literature as the psychological bond between employees and their employing organisation (Bagram, 2003). This research focused on **affective organisational commitment** which refers to the employee's emotional attachment to, identification with and involvement in the organisation, based on positive feelings or emotions towards the organisation (Allen & Meyer, 1996). The reason for this is that committed individuals who view themselves as capable to deal with the complete demands of the job tend to increase their productivity (Meyer & Allen, 1997). According to Bragg (2000), employee commitment is dependent on fairness, trust, and concern for employees. It can be concluded that employees with strong affective commitment choose to maintain employment with the

organisation as it contributes considerably to concern for quality, commitment and eagerness to share knowledge (Randall, Fedor & Longenecker, 1990).

Job-related tension can be defined as the harmful physical and emotional responses that occur when the requirements of the job do not match the capabilities, resources, or needs of the worker (United States National Institute of Occupational Safety and Health, Cincinnati, 1999). Job-related tension is an energy demanding negative emotional experience which usually follows a stimulus, which consciously or unconsciously is interpreted as a threat which leads to a response, aimed at ending this experience (Van Graan, 1981). Jordan et al. (2002) concede that emotional intelligence will moderate the effect of perceptions of job insecurity on job-related tension, and that employees with low emotional intelligence will respond to job insecurity with higher dysfunctional job-related tension. This was supported by Nikolau and Tsaoussis (2002) who established a negative correlation between emotional intelligence and work-related stress.

Coping behaviour was conceptualised from literature as the efforts we make to manage situations we have appraised as potentially harmful or stressful (Kleinke, 1998). Coping behaviour is also defined in this research document according to the suggestion of Rotondo, Carlson and Kincaid (2003) as the problem-focused behavioural actions or emotion-focused cognitive orientation used to eliminate or manage the effect of the stressor. Coping strategies/behaviours refer to the cognitive and behavioural efforts individuals use to manage demands appraised as exceeding their personal resources (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Furthermore, coping was described as comprising two main aspects; problem-focused coping and emotion-focused coping. Problem-focused coping is aimed at doing something to change the stressful situation for the better, whereas emotion-focused coping is aimed at regulating emotional distress (Bouchard & Sabouran, 1997). Avoidance coping involves strategies such as behavioural disengagement (withdrawal from a situation) and mental disengagement (using alternative strategies such as sleeping or day dreaming) to deal with stressful events (Holhan & Moos as cited in MacArthur & MacArthur, 1998). It can be concluded that as emotions are integral to the way one perceives a situation and feels about the situation and coping is a stabilising factor that one adopts in order to deal with the situation, then it is assumed that

individuals with high emotional intelligence will be able to apply more positive coping strategies in stressful situations (Catalano, Rook, & Dooley, 1986) This means that emotional intelligence will affect the individual's perception of job insecurity towards commitment and the manner in which the individual copes with the situation.

3.1.2 Conclusions regarding the specific empirical objectives

In the empirical study the following general and specific objectives were distinguished:

To determine the relationships between the constructs of the model amongst the managers of a national soft drink company.

A statistically significant negative correlation (practically significant with medium effect) was found between emotional intelligence and job insecurity (-0.31). This indicates that increased perceptions of job insecurity result in a decreased level of emotional intelligence. This is in accordance with the model of Jordan et al. (2002), which proposes that in response to job insecurity low emotional intelligent employees exhibit higher dysfunctional job-related tension.

Furthermore, a statistically significant positive correlation (practically significant with medium effect) was found between emotional intelligence and affective organisational commitment (0.32). This indicates that individuals with high emotional intelligence experience higher levels of affective organisational commitment. According to Jordan et al. (2002), employees with low emotional intelligence manifesting lowered affective commitment are more likely to engage in negative coping behaviour than employees with high emotional intelligence.

A statistically significant negative correlation (practically significant with medium effect) was found between affective organisational commitment and job-related tension (-0.41). This entails that an increase in one's affective organisational commitment may result in a decrease in job-related tension.

In this study job insecurity was perceived to be statistically significant with a negative correlation (practically significant with medium effect) with affective organisational commitment (-0.38); and a statistically significant positive correlation (practically significant with large effect) with job-related tension (0.51). This implies that an increase in perception of job insecurity results in a decrease in one's affective organisational commitment and an increase in job-related tension. The relationship obtained between job insecurity and affective organisational commitment is in line with the findings of Van Zyl (2009) who reported a negative correlation between job insecurity and affective organisational commitment. This correlation also supports the assumption of Jordan et al. (2002) that perceived job insecurity leads to the emotional reactions of lower affective organisational commitment.

Jordan et al. (2002) also propose that employees with low emotional intelligence will manifest lower affective organisational commitment compared with high emotionally intelligent employees in response to job insecurity.

A statistically significant positive correlation (practically significant with large effect) was found between job-related tension and avoidance (negative) coping behaviours (0.59). This implies that rising job-related tension could lead to increased avoidance (negative) coping behaviour which could be in the form of denial, behavioural disengagement, mental disengagement or alcohol-drug disengagement.

This correlation is therefore supported by the model of Jordan et al. (2002) that proposes that increased job-related tension has a negative influence on coping behaviour. Furthermore, Jordan et al. (2002) purported that employees with low emotional intelligence experiencing high job-related tension will be more likely to engage in negative coping behaviour.

Lastly, a statistically significant positive correlation (practically significant with medium effect) was found between problem-focused coping and emotion-focused coping (0.49). This implies that an increase in problem-focused coping results in an increase in emotion-focused coping.

To determine if emotional intelligence moderates the relationship between job insecurity and coping behaviour amongst managers within the national soft drink company.

From the regression analysis conducted in this study, the following had been determined: job insecurity explained 15% of the total variance observed in affective organisational commitment whereas emotional intelligence explained an additional 4% of the total variance observed in affective organisational commitment. Job insecurity and emotional intelligence both had a main effect on affective organisational commitment, incorporating emotional intelligence as moderator, however, did not have any effect. Thus, job insecurity did not predict affective organisational commitment with emotional intelligence as the moderator which is not in accordance with the hypothesis (H1) nor with the model of Jordan et al. (2002), which emphasised that employees with high emotional intelligence will display higher affective commitment in response to job insecurity.

Furthermore, job insecurity explained 26% of the total variance observed in job-related tension with emotional intelligence explaining an additional 1% of the total variance. In this instance, both job insecurity as well as emotional intelligence had a main effect on job-related tension. However, incorporating emotional intelligence as a moderator did not have any significant effect in this instance and therefore the conclusion was drawn that emotional intelligence does not moderate the relationship between job insecurity and job-related tension. This is in contrast to the hypothesis (H2) as well as the model of Jordan et al. (2002) which proposed that emotional intelligence does in fact have a moderating effect when perceptions of job insecurity are associated with job-related tension. The reason could be due to the subjective nature of the measuring instruments affecting validity of findings, or the already very strong relationship that exists between the constructs.

As for the relationship between affective organisational commitment and coping, 5% of the total variance observed in problem-focused coping was explained by affective organisational commitment and an additional 5% was explained by emotional intelligence. In this case, both affective organisational commitment and emotional intelligence had a main effect on problem-

focused coping. Incorporating emotional intelligence as a moderator had no influence on the relationship which leads to the conclusion that emotional intelligence does not moderate the relationship between affective organisational commitment and problem-focused coping behaviour and which is not in support of the hypothesis (H3). This means that emotionally intelligent employees who are more committed to the organisation will not be able to cope in trying situations by means of problem-focused coping which focuses on the source of job-related tension, by either changing situations or behaviours of others, or changing attitudes and needs and developing new skills and responses. In addition, affective organisational commitment explained 5% of the total variance explained in avoidance-coping with affective organisational commitment also having a main effect on avoidance coping, however, emotional intelligence had no moderating effect between affective organisation commitment and avoidance-coping.

Job-related tension only explained 3% of the total variance observed in emotion-focused coping with emotional intelligence explaining an additional 11% of the total variance. In this case, job-related tension and emotional intelligence both had a main effect on emotion-focused coping. Once again, incorporating emotional intelligence as a moderator does not moderate the relationship between emotion-focused coping and job-related tension. This, however, is not in accordance with the model of Jordan et al. (2002), which indicate that employees with high emotional intelligence could use emotional assimilation to prioritise information and understand emotions; enabling them to evaluate and manage their emotions more effectively and therefore cope better. This too is not in support of the hypothesis (H4).

Job-related tension explained 34% of the total variance observed in avoidance coping and in addition, had a main effect on avoidance coping, however, emotional intelligence had no moderating effect between the relationship of job-related tension and avoidance coping as there were no significant values.

The most critical theoretical implication of the model of Jordan et al. (2002) is the identification of emotional intelligence as an individual-difference variable that moderates stimulus-behaviour linkages. As discussed above, this study has not shown that this indeed is the case.

3.2 LIMITATIONS OF THIS RESEARCH

This research has the following limitations:

A limitation could be reliance of self-report measures. According to Schaufeli, Enzmann and Girault (1993), the exclusive use of self-report measures in validation studies increases the likelihood that at least part of the shared variance between measures can be attributed to method variance. Respondents could have had reservations concerning their confidentiality which may have had some influence on a number of the results.

The general lack of reliable and valid instruments of emotional intelligence or aspects thereof impairs progress in research on emotional intelligence.

A further limitation was due to the fact that the majority of respondents were male.

The research, furthermore, is a homogenous sample consisting of employees of a specific organisation which may have a particular organisational culture and could influence participants' responses. The study population should be extended to include employees in other sectors of the labour market.

The cross-sectional design of the study limits causal interpretation of findings as it may be that less healthy people are more likely to be threatened with potential job loss and selected into insecure and poor quality jobs. Ill health may therefore possibly be a cause rather than a consequence of job insecurity.

Not all possible factors that could impact on the main constructs and relations among them, namely job insecurity, affective organisational commitment, job-related tension, coping behaviour and emotional intelligence as moderator were investigated. In addition, emotions are difficult to study because of their transitory nature where they could be considered dependent

variables as a result of some event at work and then immediately become independent variables, because they cause certain behaviour by the person experiencing the emotion (Briner, 1990).

3.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

Emotional intelligence has become central to management and success, as four out of five companies of the Fortune 500 Corporation are promoting emotional intelligence in their employees through training, development, evaluation performance, and hiring (Sala, Hay & McBer, 2001). It seems that emotional intelligence has become somewhat of a prerequisite for not only leadership roles, but for all levels of employment.

3.3.1. Recommendations for the organisation

Job insecurity should be addressed by all organisations with the aim of reducing stress and enabling employees to deal with the stress flowing from change. By linking emotional intelligence to the learning organisation principles and other interpersonal skills needed by management and employees' in the workplace during organisational change, we may gain a deeper insight into how to make these change programs successful. Emotional intelligence of managers and leaders may provide additional avenues for future research, particularly if emotional intelligence moderates stimulus-behaviour linkages at managerial levels. It may have significant consequences for subordinates' ability to work successfully within the organisation and therefore the organisation's performance as a whole.

It was discovered that people who were best at identifying others' emotions were more successful in their work and in their social lives (Gardner, 2005). This demonstrates the significance of emotional intelligence in supporting others as well as in planning a positive course of action. It is therefore imperative to make managers more aware of the meaning of emotions in themselves as well as in others. HR systems should then consider that managers understand and buy into the long-term benefits of developing emotional intelligence in the organisation. HR could communicate the purpose and importance of the change effort by

providing managers with ongoing feedback on the development of their emotional competence and their impact on the organisation.

Research by Lachman (1989) indicates that dispositional characteristics that relate to coping behaviour are subject to change, while Mayer and Salovey (1997) point out that emotional intelligence can be improved with suitable training. Therefore, training and developing programmes directed at increasing emotional intelligence should be compiled by organisations. Furthermore, Goleman (1998) suggests that interventions aimed at managers would increase their levels of emotional intelligence to deal with subordinate insecurities, promote teamwork and establish productive relationships. This would result in an increase in the well-being, commitment and performance of employees.

In previous research, Jordan, Ashkanasy, Hartel, and Hooper (2002) have demonstrated that coaching can improve the effectiveness of low emotional intelligence teams so that their performance is functionally identical to that of high emotional intelligence teams. Therefore, emotions that are generated during an organisational change process may be managed by providing employees with necessary skills to regulate those emotions. According to Jacobs (2001), the quickest way to increase emotional intelligence in the organisation is to select employees who already demonstrate emotionally intelligent competencies and behaviours. This would mean that the organisation would have a head start of employees who are more committed to its service and will display better coping behaviour.

3.3.2 Recommendations for future research

Confirmation on the model of Jordan et al. (2002) is recommended through further research, as well as addressing the interrelationships amongst the four components of emotional intelligence. Further research should also be conducted to determine what other factors may influence the level of emotional intelligence amongst managers.

This study used a cross-sectional design to study the relationships between job insecurity, affective organisational commitment, job-related tension, coping behaviour and emotional

intelligence. Thus, causal relationships cannot really be deduced with this design. It is recommended that future research use a longitudinal or experimental design in order to determine causal relationships.

In order to develop a better understanding of the learning of emotional intelligence, different techniques to foster emotional intelligence could be explored and empirically compared to each other in terms of their outcomes.

Further study in different types of organisations, in order to avoid situational mindset, could investigate the link between perceptions of job insecurity and coping behaviour and shed some light on the apparent lack of emotional intelligence serving as moderator in this study. Lastly, future research can increase our knowledge of the buffering effect of emotional intelligence on perceptions of job insecurity and its consequences.

3.4 CHAPTER SUMMARY

In this chapter, conclusions regarding the theoretical and empirical objectives were made. The limitations of the research were pointed out and recommendations were made for the organisation in which the study was conducted, as well as for future research. All theoretical and empirical objectives formulated for this research have been obtained.

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Summary

Topic: The influence of Emotional Intelligence of managers on job insecurity and coping behaviour

Key terms: Emotional intelligence, managers, job insecurity, affective organisational commitment, job-related stress, coping behaviour, national soft drink company

Job insecurity in the current global climate has escalated and more organisations are engaged in downsizing and restructuring in an attempt to survive under difficult economic conditions. At the same time, organisations are also exposed to structural reforms and international competition leading to transformations in the labour market.

Jordan, Ashkanasy and Hartel (2002) developed a model to explain the effect of job insecurity on employees' coping behaviour. In their two stage model they propose that perceptions of job insecurity could lead to lower affective organisational commitment and higher job-related stress which in turn could lead to negative coping behaviour. They then include emotional intelligence - a moderator linking the above-mentioned constructs.

The main objective of this study was to investigate whether this model will be applicable to a national soft drink company in South Africa. A literature review was conducted to determine how emotional intelligence, job insecurity, affective organisational commitment, job-related stress, and coping behaviour were conceptualised. The relationships between these constructs and the role of emotional intelligence as moderator were also determined. This was done to investigate the model of Jordan et al. (2002).

A cross-sectional research design was used for the purpose of this study. Managers of a national soft drink company were the participants. The Emotional Intelligence Scale (EIS) (Schutte et al., 1998); the Job Insecurity Questionnaire (JIQ) of De Witte, (2000); the Organisational Commitment Questionnaire of Meyer and Allen (1997); the COPE Questionnaire of Carver,

Scheier and Weintraub (1989); and the Experience of Work and Life Circumstances Questionnaire (WLQ) of Van Zyl and Van der Walt (1991), including the biographical questionnaire, were utilised. The SPSS programme was used to perform the statistical analysis and descriptive statistics were used to analyse the data. Cronbach alpha coefficients were used to assess the reliability; and explorative factor analysis was conducted to assess the validity of the measuring instruments. Pearson's product-moment coefficients were used to specify the relationships between the variables. Multiple regression analysis was used to determine the moderating influence of emotional intelligence.

It was determined that, in this specific research group, job insecurity has a negative correlation with affective organisational commitment, but job insecurity has a positive correlation with job-related tension. A positive correlation was found between job-related tension and negative coping behaviours, such as denial, behavioural disengagement, mental disengagement or alcohol-drug disengagement. A negative correlation was found between job-related tension and affective organisational commitment. Furthermore, job insecurity was found to have a negative correlation with affective organisational commitment. Lastly, problem-focused coping has a positive relationship with emotion-focused coping. All of these correlations were statistically and practically significant.

Multiple regression analyses were performed to determine the moderating effect of emotional intelligence as mentioned above. The results indicated emotional intelligence does not moderate any of the relationships between the constructs.

Conclusions and limitations of this research and recommendations for the national soft drink organisation as well as for future research were made.